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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS IN ALBERTA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

by

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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Women Administrators in Alberta Community Colleges submitted by Elaine Robillard in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Date June 13th, 1979

DEDICATION

To Neil whose constant support and encouragement gave me the confidence to finish.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to obtain information about women administrators presently employed in six Alberta Community Colleges. It concerned how they viewed themselves, their jobs and their organizations. The six Community Colleges participating in this study were: Grant MacEwan Community College, Medicine Hat College, Mount Royal College, Lethbridge Community College, Red Deer College and Grande Prairie Regional College.

The literature review focused on the three stages of a career (career choice, career implementation and organizational career) as they affect the development of career goals of individuals in general. The literature on the socialization process was then reviewed in terms of its impact on individual career choices, career implementation and organizational careers.

A questionnaire adapted from one developed by Crawford (1977) was utilized to survey the total population of women administrators in six Alberta Community Colleges in order to obtain information on how these women viewed themselves, their jobs and their organizations. In order to address the above, six specific questions were answered in this study:

1. What is the general profile of women in administrative positions today?

2. Do women administrators perceive any factors within their respective organizations which have enhanced or inhibited their employment career advancement?

3. If these women administrators did perceive enhancing or inhibiting factors as described in (2), what were these factors?

4. How are women administrators' careers affected by their perceptions of these factors?

5. How do women administrators perceive themselves: (a) on the job, (b) in general, (c) as wives, and (d) as mothers?

6. Are women administrators themselves obstacles to their career progression in Community Colleges?

The statistical procedures used to analyse the data collected were frequency distributions with percentages and Pearson correlations.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Over the past decade, a number of writers have expressed their dissatisfaction with the status of women in North American society (Epstein, 1973; Richardson-Walum, 1977; Stephenson, 1973; Zellman, 1976). A recurrent theme in many books has been the concern expressed for the occupational segregation, by sex, of the Canadian and American labour forces.

In The Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada (1970), attention is directed toward the restriction of women's occupational opportunity in the Canadian labour force. Women represented 34.2 percent of the total number of occupations listed for 1969. More women were employed in clerical occupations than in any others, holding 69.2 percent of the positions in this category. One of the male dominated occupational categories in 1969 was management, with men holding 88.4 percent of these positions and women holding only 11.4 percent of them.

The general occupational picture in Canada, described in The Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada (1970), is one of occupational segregation by sex. Some occupations such as clerical are shown as female dominated, while others, including the management category, are shown as being almost entirely filled by men.

As noted in The Report of the Royal Commission on the Status

of Women in Canada (1970), the occupational segregation by sex of many occupations in Canada has led to the practice of referring to these occupations and professions as "traditionally male" or "traditionally female." Management, as an occupational category dominated by men, can then be considered as a "traditionally male" occupation.

Why, if one assumes all things to be equal, are not more women holding positions in the "traditionally male" occupational area of management? In order to address this question, the focus of this study is directed toward the women employed in the "traditionally male" occupational area of management, specifically toward the women presently holding administrative positions within a particular type of organization in Alberta—post-secondary, non-university educational organizations.

The Study

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to obtain information on how all the women administrators presently employed in six Alberta Community Colleges view themselves, their jobs and their organizations. The six Community Colleges were: Grant MacEwan Community College, Medicine Hat College, Mount Royal College, Lethbridge Community College, Red Deer College and Grande Prairie Regional College.

In order to address the above it is necessary to answer the following specific questions:

1. What is the general profile of women in administrative

positions today (specifically in the six Community Colleges listed above)?

2. Do women administrators perceive any factors within their respective organizations which enhanced or inhibited the employment and career advancement of women administrators?

3. If these women administrators did perceive enhancing or inhibiting factors as described in (2), what are these factors?

4. How are women administrators' careers affected by their perceptions of these factors?

5. How do women administrators perceive themselves: (a) on the job, (b) in general, (c) as wives, and (d) as mothers?

6. Are women administrators themselves obstacles to their progression in community colleges?

Definition of Terms

Administrator

The term administrator is synonymous with the term manager. Tosi and Carroll (1976) place managers in a separate and distinct category from other employees in an organization. They point out that a manager in an organization is in a position that has at least two characteristics:

> 1. Managers usually have the right to decide how those who work for them [operative employees] can use resources needed to accomplish the operative tasks [of the organization], the execution of work . . .
>
> 2. He is responsible to a higher superior for the supervision of subordinates [operative employees]. (Tosi and Carroll, 1976, p. 6)

Operative Employees

> Those people in an organization who are involved in the execution of tasks, carrying out the activity, doing the work itself are operative employees. Their primary assignment is doing the work, not planning or managing it. (Tosi and Carroll, 1976, p. 5)

Operative employees may be full-time (at least 37 hours/week) or part-time (less than 37 hours/week) employees.

People in Community Colleges who may be operative employees, may also be professionals, such as faculty members. Others may have entirely different educational backgrounds or experience, such as secretaries and administrative assistants.

Community Colleges in Alberta

The six post-secondary, non-university educational institutions which Heron (1972) identified as Community Colleges in Alberta are the same institutions defined here as Community Colleges. These institutions are: Grant MacEwan Community College, Grande Prairie Regional College, Medicine Hat College, Mount Royal College, Lethbridge Community College and Red Deer College.

Heron noted that in 1971, all but Grant MacEwan had accepted students for at least one year. As of 1978, all six of the above Community Colleges have been accepting students for at least five years and each of these colleges has had a Board of Governors or Trustees appointed from its surrounding community for at least one year. They are all publicly supported community colleges.

Although there are both some similarities and some differences, S.A.I.T., N.A.I.T., the Alberta Vocational Centres (A.V.C.'s), Keyano College, Lakeland College, Valleyview College and Olds College,

also post-secondary, non-university educational institutions, are not included in this study because they either do not have Boards of Governors or have had Boards of Governors for less than one year.

Boundaries within Organizations

Boundaries within organizations are defined as real or perceived factors which inhibit the advancement of employees from one level to another within an organization.

Assumption

This study operated on the assumption that:

1. Whether boundaries were perceived or real, they influenced women administrators' behavior and responses to their jobs and their organizations.

Delimitations

This study operated under the following delimitations:

1. Respondents were asked to consider only their own perceptions about their jobs and their organization.

2. All the women classified by their respective institutions as administrators were used in the study.

3. No one from outside the community colleges was asked to participate in the study.

Limitations

The study operated under the following limitations:

1. The effectiveness of the study in identifying perceptions

was limited by the ability of the technique to elicit these perceptions.

2. The study was further limited by the amount of care taken by each respondent in responding to the instrument used.

3. The degree of participation as indicated by the rate of returned questionnaires was also a limiting factor.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The term career has been defined as the ". . . individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviors associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of a person's life" (Hall, 1976, p. 4). The time span between early childhood and employment within a particular organization becomes, in terms of Hall's definition of career, part of the individual's overall career and is divided here into two stages: (1) career choice process and (2) career implementation process. The time spent by an individual employed in a particular organization is described here as a third stage of their overall career: the organizational career.

The literature review in this chapter will be focused on these three stages as they affect the development of career goals of individuals in general. The literature on the socialization process is then reviewed in terms of its impact on individual career choices, career implementation and organizational careers.

Three areas are identified as being of particular importance to people's career choices, career implementation and organizational careers. How these areas, (1) ability, (2) inclination, and (3) opportunity are affected by the socialization process and, in turn affect the three stages of a career for women in management is examined.

The Three Stages of a Career

Stage I: The Career Choice Process

Career choice is not limited to a once-in-a-lifetime selection of an occupation, but may be any choice that affects one's career (Hall, 1976). In this way, career choice is seen as a process in which individuals begin the task of career selection as early as the period covering childhood, up to age 11, in what Ginzberg, Ginzberg, Axelrad and Herma (1951) describe as the fantasy period. While children during this period are not actually selecting an occupation or even expressing a preference toward a particular career, Ginzberg et al. point out that they begin to imagine various things they would like to be as adults, such as lawyer, doctor, teacher, nurse, etc.

Ginzberg et al. note that tentative choices about careers begin between the approximate ages of 11 and 16. Although during this period of preadolescence and adolescence "the young person is still not fully cognizant of the essential factors that should determine his decision about his future occupation, every year he gains greater insight into himself, into his true interests, the extent to which he has the capacity to translate them into an occupation, and the values he prizes most highly" (p. 73). The external environment offers opportunities, but it also imposes limitations. Ginzberg et al. note that as young people gain a greater understanding of their external environment, they learn to base their tentative career choices on more than just their interests. As part of the maturing process, they begin to consider, simultaneously, their interests, abilities and the opportunities offered by the external environment. These three factors

tend to narrow or limit the young person's choices to particular occupations. Ginzberg et al. point out that later on, people's values develop to the point where they also begin to influence career preferences.

Stage II: The Career Implementation Process

The process of career implementation begins in the period described by Ginzberg et al. as the realistic choice period. These choices, they note, are more likely to be implemented than are the fantasy or tentative choices. Starting at approximately age 17, individuals have to make specific decisions about whether or not to attend college or university, what to major in, or what kind of job or training to seek if they are not continuing their education. During the latter part of the tentative choice period, it was noted that individuals begin to consider external reality in terms of what it represents for their career choices. However, Ginzberg et al. point out that individuals must postpone most of their exploration until they are able to change their home life and educational life in high school.

Three substages of the realistic choice period are described by Ginzberg et al.:

1. an exploratory sub-stage during which individuals examine several possible career options,

2. a crystallization substage in which preferences become more sharply focused, and

3. a specification period in which individuals choose a particular occupation.

According to Ginzberg et al., the realistic choice period (or career implementation stage) may continue long into adulthood, encompassing even the organizational career stage of individuals' careers. Individuals may go through several cycles of exploring—crystallizing—specifying, in an attempt to find a career that fits their needs, interests and abilities, particularly if these individuals have advanced educations.

Stage III: The Organizational Career

The structure and process of the organizational career has been described by Schein (1977) from three points of view: (1) the individual employee's, (2) the manager's, and (3) the outside observer's.

> (1) The individual moving through an organization builds certain expectations having to do with advancement, personal success, nature of the work, and so on. (2) The individuals who are in the organization as managers take the 'organizational' point of view, build perspectives in terms of the development of human resources, allocation of the right people to the right slots, optimum rates of movement through department levels and so on. (p. 146)

(3) The third point of view is that of the outside observer who sees certain similarities between organizational careers and other transitional processes such as socialization which occur in society.

By taking this third view of an outside observer, Schein points out that the structure and process of the organizational career becomes identifiable as a set of basic stages, which create transitional and terminal statuses or positions for individuals. These involve certain psychological and organizational processes. Similarly, when one uses Schein's perspective of the outside observer to view the first two stages of a career (career choice process and career implementation process) it reveals a series of transition

points in these processes that individuals move through to attainment of an organizational career.

Within each of the three stages of a career, career choice process, career implementation process, and the organizational career, there are three areas in which the individual is affected by the socialization process. These three areas, ability, inclination and opportunity, in turn affect the stages of an individual's career. Ability is defined broadly as the power to do something; inclination as the interest in doing something and opportunity as the chance to do something.

The Socialization Process: Its Impact on the Three Career Stages

As pointed out by Richardson-Walum (1977) "everyone is born into a culture" (p. 4), which she defines as a set of ideas shared by a group of people, ideas that are symbolically expressed in their behaviors and artifacts. "These ideas comprise beliefs about the nature of reality, moral judgements about what is right or wrong, and evaluations of what is desirable or attractive or disgusting and to be avoided" (p. 4). Socialization is the process by which individuals learn the values of the culture in which they live, so that they consider these values to be a natural part of themselves (Richardson-Walum, 1977; Deaux, 1976).

If cultural norms and values are so thoroughly learned by individuals that they are considered a natural part of themselves, it is reasonable to assume that these norms and values form a fundamental part of the context in which decisions about careers

are made.

Epstein (1973) notes that "from their culture, children derive a set of expectations about themselves that become a crucial part of their self-image. From the value system, they learn what to like and dislike, what to cherish and disdain, and, . . . what are acceptable occupational and family social patterns" (p. 19). She notes further that children are taught that certain work is essential and valuable while other work is essential but of low value. Holland (1973) points out that strong socializing influences such as social class, race and sex affect an individual's personal orientation toward specific types of occupations. As a result of these influences, individuals learn which types of work are encouraged, tolerated or tabooed for them.

Just as we are born into a culture, we are also categorized by others, as male or female at birth, within the cultural context that everyone is (should be) either male or female according to anatomical differences (Richardson-Walum, 1977). However, "gender identity—what it means to be male or female in terms of appropriate role performances, personality structures, attitudes and behaviors is not determined at birth" (Richardson-Walum, p. 6). Rather, as pointed out by Richardson-Walum, "a child with a given anatomical structure is socialized or taught to think, feel and act in ways considered natural, and morally appropriate for a person of that sex" (p. 6). Thus, people who are socialized into our culture learn what behaviors and attitudes they should have according to their label—male or female.

While Richardson-Walum notes that appropriate behavior is socially shared and transmitted through the culture, with people learning what is appropriate to their gender, she also points out that they are constantly choosing to present themselves as masculine or feminine. "Therefore, persons have the option to accept or reject cultural definitions of appropriate gender behavior and consequently the ability to change themselves or the culture" (Richardson-Walum, p. 8). As shall be seen later, the woman who pursues a career in management has chosen to reject a number of cultural definitions about what are considered appropriate to her gender.

Definitions of Masculinity and Femininity

Numerous investigators have noted the existence of sex-role stereotypes (consensual beliefs in society about the differing characteristics of men and women). These stereotypes are widely held (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz & Vogel, 1970; Deaux, 1976; Epstein, 1973; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Richardson-Walum, 1977).

Broverman et al. developed and administered a questionnaire to practicing mental health clinicians that assessed individual perceptions of typical masculine and femine behavior in order to determine currently held definitions of sex roles. The results showed that male valued stereotypic items such as aggressiveness, independence, mathematical ability, dominance, objectivity, competitiveness, analytical skills and level-headedness,

were more often ascribed to healthy males than to females. Females were associated with characteristics in our culture that are considered negative and representing opposites of the male characteristics: submissiveness, dependence, avoidance of math and science, lack of analytical skills, easily influenced, subjective and passive. The clinicians agreed that the mature adult was substantially equivalent to the mature man. However, for a woman to be considered mature and healthy in this culture, she must behave in ways that are considered socially undesirable and immature for a competent adult. There exists, then, a culturally constructed conflict situation for women. As Broverman et al. point out, if women choose to act in the more socially desirable and adult ways preferred by their culture, they risk having their femininity questioned. If they choose to act in the prescribed feminine ways, women are accepting a non-adult status.

Epstein (1973) has noted the distinctive problems of women which come from confusion of sex roles with occupation roles, so that women are likely to be culturally assigned work functions which reflect an extension of their sex role. Also, because women learn from the culture a set of expectations about themselves that become a crucial part of their self-image, they themselves tend to aspire only to socially sanctioned work functions.

We have seen that children fantasize about their future roles from a very early age. Henning and Jardim (1977) point out that, through their parents' role models, one of the messages little girls get about their future is that it probably has a husband in it:

at that point her parents are the only role models she has. "Fathers support wives and children and even when a mother works, the father's job is usually seen as the more critical" (Henning & Jardim, p. 16). Henning and Jardim note that little girls look at little boys they know and wonder whether they would be good husbands someday—as good or better than their fathers are to their mothers. What is important here is that the theme of what Henning and Jardim call vicarious independence is very real and the feelings associated with the failure of not being chosen as a wife someday are concentrated in how one looks, seems and appears, not with what one can or cannot do. Individual attributes become an important focus for women's expectations and ambitions because they tend not to actively engage the environment for challenges they could master, developing a feeling for something they are good at, something that might be of tremendous value to them in a career (Henning & Jardim, 1977). Perhaps, as Henning and Jardim point out, this is because through marriage, women have an alternative to occupational success and feel they can opt out when the going gets rough

Men, on the other hand, learn at a very early age that they are expected to work to support at least themselves. The tensions and anxieties that surround this issue thus tend to be directly related to the problems they encounter in the environment. They learn effectiveness through mastery, while the effectiveness of girls is contingent on eliciting the help of others (Wladis Hoffman, 1972). As a result, girls, less encouraged to be independent and subject to

more parental protectiveness than boys, engage in less independent exploration of their environments (Henning & Jardim, 1977; Wladis Hoffman, 1972).

As noted earlier, the fantasy period in the career choice process stage is followed by the tentative choice period in which choices are first based on an individual's interests and later, on a combination of their abilities and interests. If that individual is a woman, her interests in occupations may be narrowed by the effects of the socialization process.

This process begins when boys and girls start to receive different messages about their future roles and continues to shape a woman's perceptions about her place in society and about which kinds of work are appropriate or inappropriate for her.

Epstein (1973) notes that:

> Girls tend to accept the definitions of what they might do, they do not aspire high. Even the smart ones, those who could become qualified, never are motivated sufficiently to attain the skills they would need later to become members of the professions . . . The socialization of the typical American woman affects the motivation even of the college educated woman and usually undercuts her career potential. (p. 21)

Wirtenberg and Nakamura (1976) reviewed the research completed on the development of occupational aspirations in young women and discussed the possible contribution of sex-biased educational practices to the restriction of these aspirations. They concluded that occupational stratification between the sexes has been encouraged by the public school process from kindergarten to grade 12. They stated that:

> Having progressed through elementary school with textbooks filled with stereotyped characters in stereotyped occupations and through junior high school where vocational tracks prescribed "sex appropriate" activities and occupations, the girl arrives at her counsellor for vocational guidance. There the occupational distinction between the sexes is still all too often perpetuated. (p. 168)

In a study by Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) of women's attitudes through early adolescence, adolescence and young adulthood and how these attitudes affect the development of life style, it was found that women's career commitment drops significantly from junior to senior high school. This drop in career commitment when studied in direct relation to the three developmental stages revealed that the senior high group had a greater acceptance of marriage than did the junior high group. Although the senior high group believed that neither men nor their own peers deny women a position of equality, they did believe that women are concerned about their possible denial of "the cultural imperative of feminine inferiority and of homemaking for the woman" (p. 183). They found that women's attitudes toward career and marriage varied according to the life plans which women express. Women lose their interests in the vocational world as their thoughts turn to marriage. Conversely, lack of marriage plans heightens a woman's interest in a vocation.

The Structure of a Career: A Model

General Description of the Model

From the vantage point of outside observer, it might be said that it is possible to see the complete career process from beginning to end. If one of the many career goals attainable by an individual is identified, the multiplicity of routes that lead to that goal might be considered as forming a three-dimensional cone, with the peak of the cone being the goal itself (Figure 1). The base of the cone represents all the possible status points, or descriptors, an individual could have, at birth, for which the identified goal is potentially achievable. For example, if the presidency of the United States was the identified goal, essentially all children born in that country, regardless of race, creed, colour, sex, etc., could be considered as being at the base of a cone that has "U.S. President" at its peak. A child born in the Soviet Union would not be so considered, since it is impossible for such a child to attain that goal.

While the shortest, direct path to the peak of the cone from its base is along the central axis, the longest path originates at the circumference of the base. The significance of this can be illustrated by considering "high school principal" as a career goal for a child born to middle class parents in an urban centre, who take an active interest in education and for a child born to poorer parents in a rural setting, who take no interest in education and may even regard it as a waste of time. Although this goal is potentially attainable by either child, the route to the goal is likely to be shorter (or easier) for the former than for the latter. Therefore, in this example, the "urban" child could be said to be closer to the

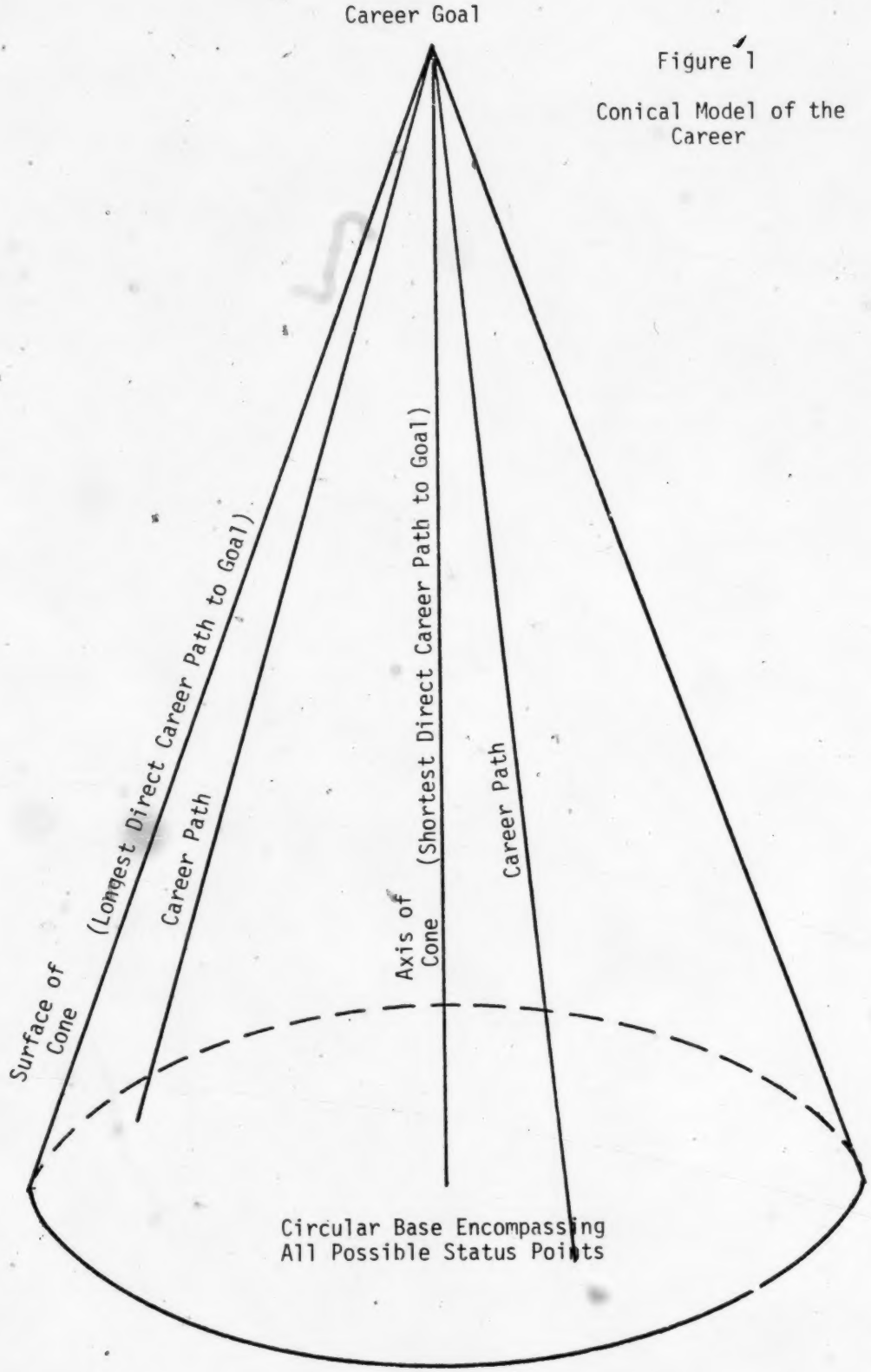


Figure 1

Conical Model of the Career

axis of the cone than the "rural" child.

It should be emphasized that this model does not require that a child at the base of the cone be aware of the goal identified at the peak of the cone. In a more general sense, it could be said that the child's descriptors (factors that are specific to a particular child's description) place him or her in a base that is common to many cones, the peaks of which identify all the career goals that that individual could potentially achieve. For simplicity, however, further discussion here will be limited mainly to the application of a single cone model.

Movement within the cone can be described in any combination of the three types of motion shown in Figure 2. Angular motion is essentially circular and does not move a person any closer to or farther from the axis or peak of the cone. For the urban child in the previous example, the family's relocation from one urban centre to another might be considered as angular movement. Although such a move changes one or more of the child's descriptors, it does not necessarily alter the child's position relative to a shorter or easier route to the goal of high school principal. Nor does such a move necessarily move the child closer to the goal itself.

Radial motion is along a radius of the cone and, while moving a person closer to, or further from, the axis of the cone, it does not directly contribute to movement toward the peak. Again, using the prior example, should the rural child's parents develop an active interest in education and join their local parent-teachers organization, the effect would be to alter the status of the child in such a

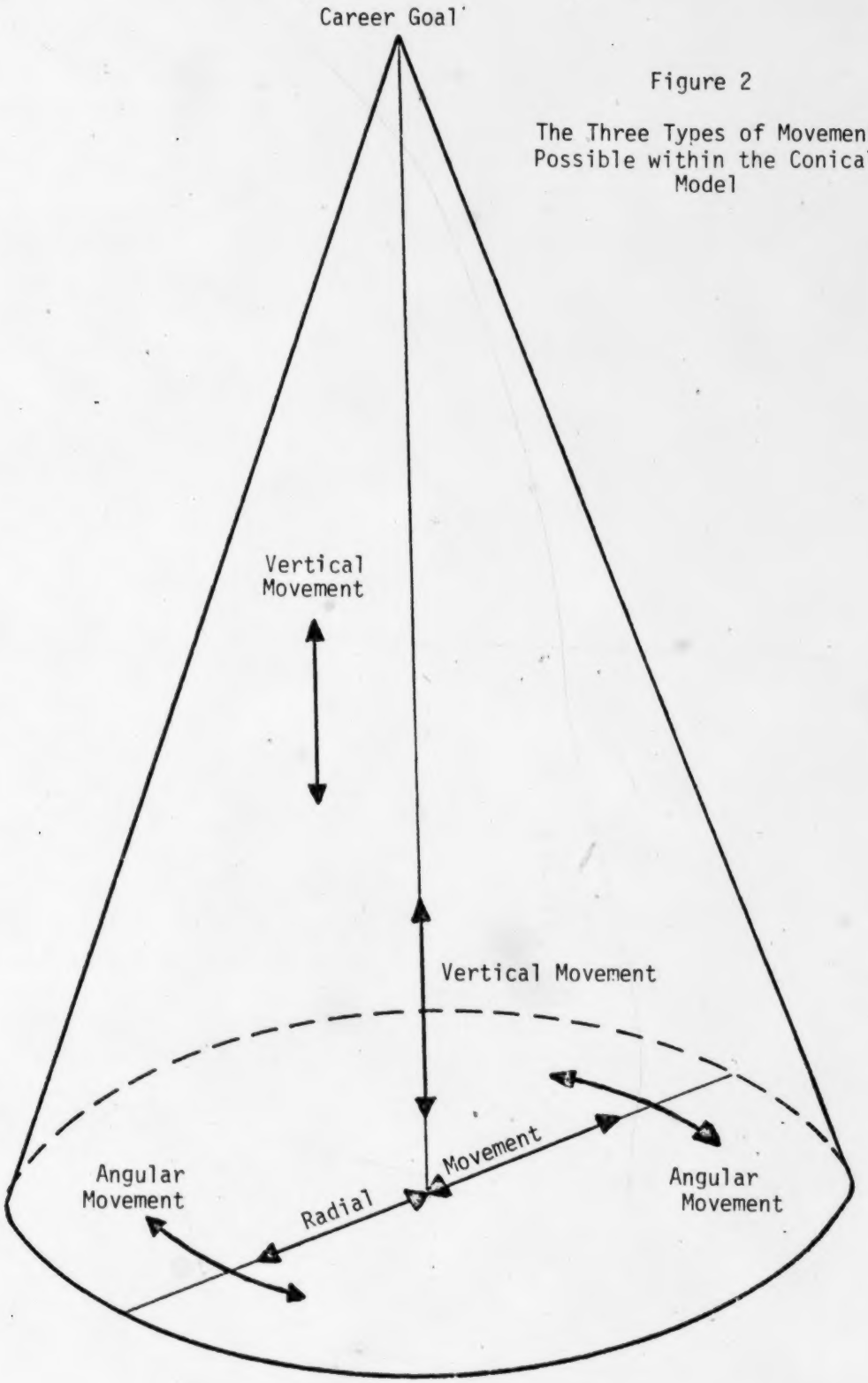


Figure 2

The Three Types of Movement Possible within the Conical Model

way that he or she is now closer to a shorter direct route to the goal.

Vertical motion is movement along, or parallel to, the axis of the cone and actually moves a person closer to or further from the career goal. This type of movement may be characterized in the situation where both the urban and rural child are "jumped" ahead a grade level in school. This moves the children closer to the goal, but does not necessarily alter either child's relative position with respect to the axis. Vertical movement is also a function of time. Given that the outside observer's vantage point includes the knowledge that the identified goal will be achieved by the individual, the passing of time itself contributes to vertical movement.

Application of the Model to the Three Career Stages

During the fantasy period of the career choice stage, the individual makes no conscious effort to move closer to the axis of the cone. This is because children in this stage have not yet "set their sights" on any particular career goal. Therefore, it is not possible for them to make any concerted effort toward achieving a goal. In this stage, vertical movement is a function of time only, while angular and radial movement is a function of the child's external environment. Changes in the external environment, such as attitudes of parents or access to good schools, can make it easier or more difficult to achieve the goal that the child will eventually choose, thereby supplying radial movement. Changes, such as moving from one good school to another, would produce angular movement.

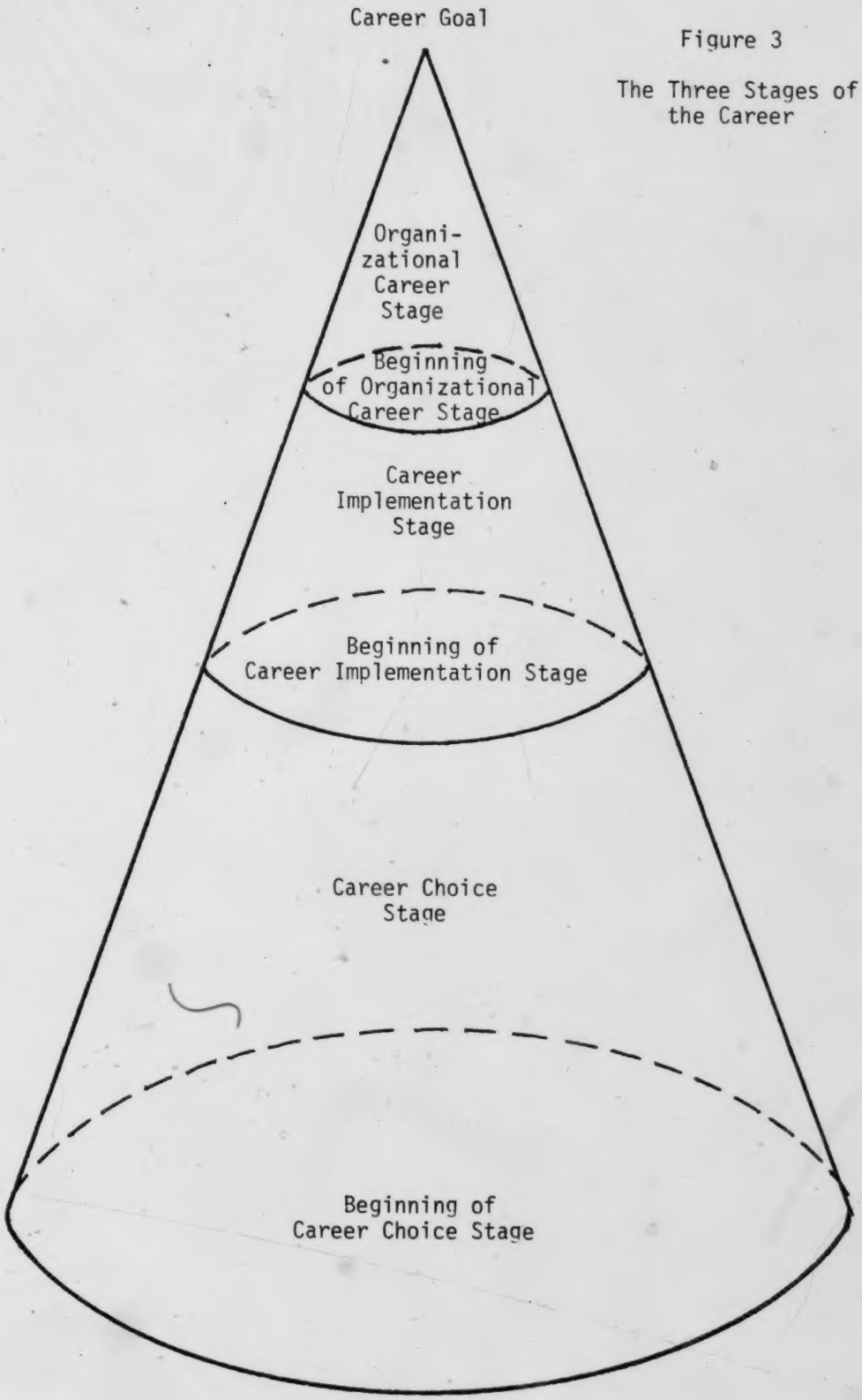
As the child enters the tentative choice period of the career choice stage, he or she may now begin to make some conscious

movement toward the axis of the cone. The more awareness the child has of himself, the more likely will be the conscious pursuit of activities which "fit in" with his interests, abilities, opportunities and values. While time is still the major factor in vertical movement, the rate of movement can be increased by skipping grades, reading books which relate to interest areas, or any other activities which accelerate the child toward the area that will eventually become the chosen career. During this period, angular and radial position can also be altered through conscious efforts of the child as well as by the external environment. For example, while extracurricular reading itself may accelerate the vertical movement, reading materials which have specific relevance to the career goal, even though it is yet unchosen, will move the child closer to the axis of the cone. Because there are likely to be many subject areas the knowledge of which will lead to the same career goal, concentration in one of these subject areas as opposed to another, may produce angular movement. For example, if the goal eventually chosen is "high school teacher," the pursuit of an interest in history will have an angular relationship to mathematics. Both subjects are specialty areas for high school teachers, but the choice of one over the other does not necessarily bring the goal itself any closer.

The beginning of the career implementation phase is shown in Figure 3 as a horizontal line drawn through the cone. It will be recalled that the base of the cone represented all the possible descriptors a child could have at birth and still potentially achieve a

Figure 3

The Three Stages of the Career



given career goal. Similarly, the line between career choice and career implementation represents all the possible descriptors an individual could have at the time that the given career goal is realistically considered and still achieve that goal. In this context, it is not necessary that the individual be at the axis of the cone at the beginning of the career implementation stage. Nor does the action of choosing the career goal that is represented by the peak of the cone, in itself, move the individual closer to the axis. It is the process which the individual chooses to pursue the goal that results in radial movement.

In terms of the career goal that the outside observer knows will eventually be attained by the individual, the exploratory, crystallization and specification sub-stages which occur during the career implementation phase result primarily in radial movement. If the individual actively pursues, even temporarily, a tentative goal other than that goal he or she will eventually attain, such action will move that individual further from the axis, unless it also contributes to the eventual goal in at least an equal amount. Since it is possible for an individual to go through a number of exploration/crystallization/specification cycles, movement within the cone during the career implementation stage could be very erratic depending upon how relevant this "recycling" is to the eventual goal.

In its simplest form, this phase will contain only one exploration/crystallization/specification cycle. The end of this cycle is marked by the individual engaging in activities that will assist in the achievement of the chosen career goal. At this point,

the individual will have begun to implement the career that the outside observer knew would be chosen.

The end of the career implementation stage occurs when the individual has completed the preparation necessary to enter the organization in which his or her goal will be realized. In the model (Figure 3), this point is represented as a horizontal line through the cone, separating career implementation from the organizational career.

As was the case when the individual moved from the career choice phase to career implementation, transition to the organizational career does not necessarily occur at the axis of the cone. How close the individual is to the axis is still a function of the individual's descriptors as they relate to the ease with which the goal can be attained. For example, although attainment of a senior position in an organization may be possible for a person with only high school education, the achievement will likely be easier if this person had a university degree. In terms of the model, having a university degree would place an individual closer to the axis at the transition point to the organizational career.

It should be noted here that individuals may move from the career choice implementation stage into the organizational career stage and back again if, during the organizational career stage, they find that their interests, abilities and needs are not being met. As pointed out earlier, the realistic choice period of the career implementation stage may last for years for people with advanced educations. They may move from one organizational career to another

or move from the organizational career back to career implementation, returning later to another organizational career.

In the organizational career stage, the three directions of movement within the cone take on characteristics which are peculiar to the organization itself. These are conceptualized and defined by Schein (1977) and are described in the following sections that are entitled "The Organizational Career: Schein's Model" and "The Structure of the Organization: A Model."

The Organizational Career: Schein's Model

As described earlier, Schein views the process and structure of a career within the organization from three perspectives: (1) that of the individual moving through the organization, (2) that of the managers in the organization and (3) that of the outside observer. The perspective of the outside observer of the structure and process of the organizational career permits one to see it as a set of basic stages which create transitional and terminal statuses or positions for individuals and involves certain psychological and organizational processes. These basic stages are transition points through which the individual passes in the process of the career within the organization. Schein calls these transition points boundary passages. Similarly, using the perspective of outside observer to view the career as a whole, permits one to see a series of transition points in the career choice and implementation stages through which an

individual passes on the way to attainment of an organizational career.

Just as the interaction between the socialization process and the individual can influence that person's abilities, interests and opportunities toward certain career choices and career implementation, so will the interaction between the structure of the organization and an individual affect that person's abilities, interests and opportunities for success in any organizational career.

Schein explains that this interaction between the individual and the organization contains two basic processes: (1) the influence of the organization on the individual (a type of acculturation or adult socialization); and (2) the influence of the individual on the organization (a process of innovation).

Schein's outline of career movement through the organization includes three processes which the individual must undergo after each boundary passage:

1. a process of learning or socialization during which organizational influence on the individual is at a maximum.

2. a process of performance during which the individual's influence on the organization is at a maximum.

3. a process of becoming obsolete or learning new skills for further movement.

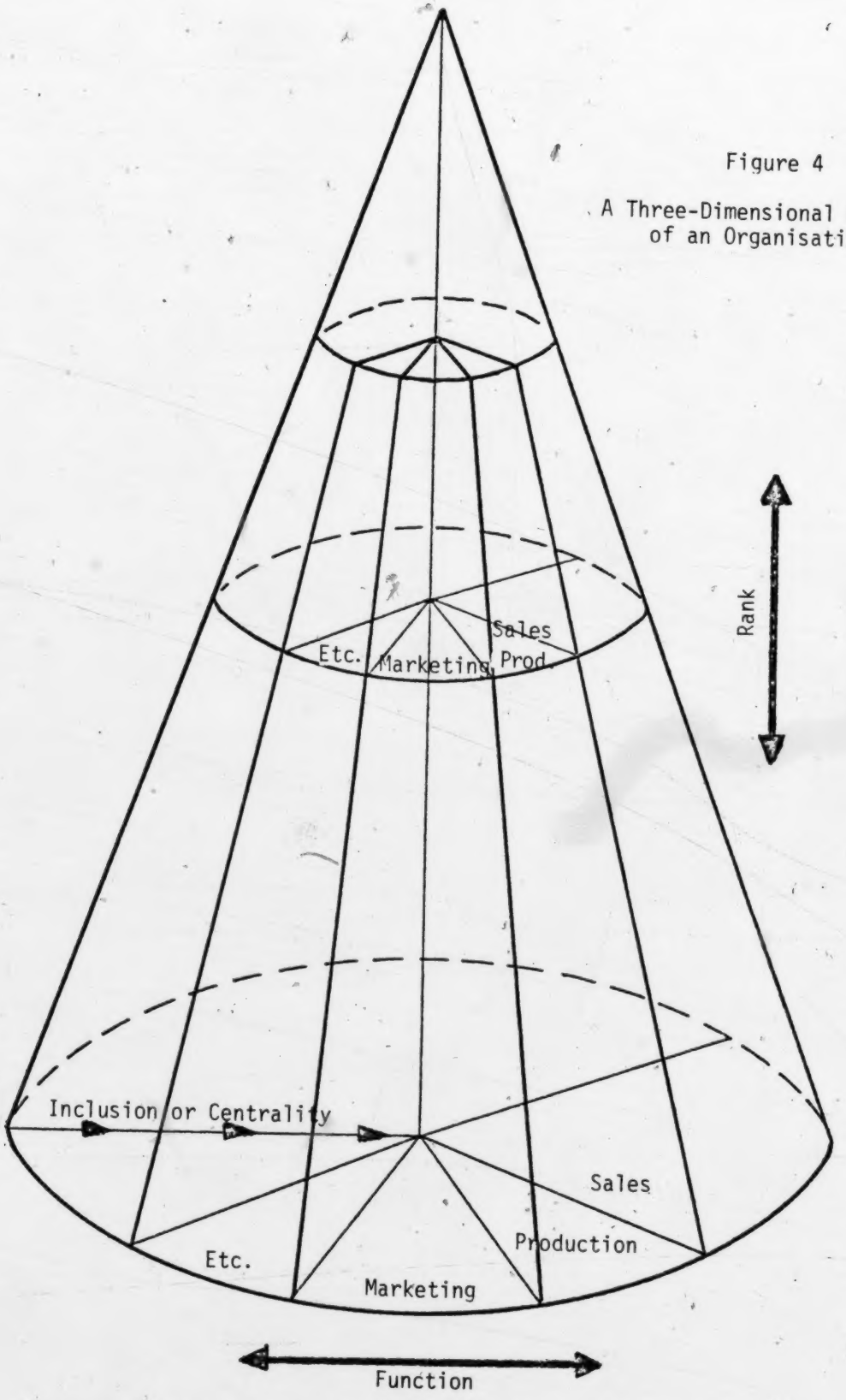
The Structure of the Organization: A Model

Figure 4 illustrates Schein's conceptualization of the organization as a three-dimensional cone. Figure 4 is a magnified view of the top section of the cone depicted in Figure 3. Schein describes career movement as occurring along three conceptually distinguishable dimensions corresponding to three types of boundaries which characterize the internal structure of organizations. First, vertical movement occurs up or down in ranks or levels in the organization and crosses hierarchical boundaries. In Figure 4, this process is depicted by movement along the axis of the cone. Second, radial movement inwards, closer to the inner circle of decision making and power, occurs and crosses inclusion boundaries which distinguish degrees of centrality among individuals or groups. This process would be represented by movement from the periphery toward the axis of the cone in Figure 4. Third, angular movement changing one's function or division in the organization occurs and crosses functional or departmental boundaries. An example of this process would, in Figure 4, be movement from Marketing to Sales.

Schein notes that boundaries can vary in numbers, degree of permeability and filtering properties. Most organizations have numerous functional boundaries that separate different line and staff activities. In some organizations, these functional boundaries may be highly flexible in that movement from one division or department to another can be accomplished with relative ease. However, other

Figure 4

A Three-Dimensional Model of an Organisation*



*Redrawn from Schein, Edgar H. The Individual, the Organisation and the Career: A Conceptual Scheme. In J. R. Hackman, E. E. Lawler III, and L. W. Porter (Eds.), Perspectives on Behaviors in Organisations. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977, p. 139.

organizations, such as colleges, may contain many functional boundaries which are highly inflexible or impermeable. For example, the movement of a chemistry instructor to an English department would be extremely unlikely. Similarly, the filtering properties of hierarchical or inclusion boundaries may exhibit varying degrees of "being on the inside" with the boundaries separating the levels or inner regions being more or less permeable.

Each boundary has specific filter types which specify the set of rules by which one passes through them. Schein explains that hierarchical boundaries filter individuals in terms of their seniority, merit, personal characteristics, types of attitudes held, and by who is sponsoring them. Functional boundaries filter individuals in terms of specific competencies or their needs for broader experience in some scheme of training and development. Inclusion boundaries filter individuals in terms of highly informal norms which may change as one gets closer to the inner core and which are shared by the group to be entered.

The Structure of the Individual: A Concept

Schein asserts that "it is not sufficient to describe a person in terms of basic personality structure if we are to understand his or her relationship to the organisation" (p. 143). He bases his analysis of the structure of individuals on the concept of the constructed social self. This concept describes the individual as possessing many constructed social selves. Fulfillment of expectations in the individual's environment is possible through these

constructed social selves and not through the more enduring underlying qualities of the basic self. Individuals, then, have an "outer shell" of social selves, which they use in dealing with the variety of social situations they encounter, as well as an inner core of more stable social selves that make up each individual's basic personality structure. Schein notes that, while this outer shell can be changed to fit a new situation, the inner core is fairly rigid and inflexible as it contains behaviors and attitudes held since childhood. He stresses that all of the patterns of behavior and attitudes reflected in the constructed social selves are a "part of us, to the extent that we are not conscious of the almost instantaneous 'choices' we make among possible patterns as we 'compose ourselves' for entry into a new social situation" (p. 144).

Schein notes that the role demands that individuals encounter in positions they take or to which they aspire contain three types of behaviors and attributes: those that the individual must be willing to engage in or to have in order to fulfill the role minimally; those that would be relevant and desirable but not necessary; and those that might be irrelevant to the role under consideration, but may contain certain role capacities that would be useful in another position, perhaps at the next career level.

A Career Choice of Management

Management Defined

Many definitions and descriptions have been formulated about what managers do, who they are and what abilities are required of them.

Tosi and Carroll (1976) note that managers are a separate and distinct category of employees in an organization. They point out that both the President of General Motors and the afternoon shift supervisor at McDonald's are managers. However, there are some important differences in what they do, how they do it and the kinds of decisions they make, as well as some common elements or functions of their jobs.

The basic functions of a manager are usually listed as planning, organizing, leading and controlling (Neuner, Keeling & Kallaus, 1972; Shilt, Evard & Johns, 1973; Sisk, 1973). Shilt et al. (1973) say:

> Planning means deciding what has to be done and determining how objectives are to be met. Organizing involves getting set up to be able to do the necessary work that has been planned. A manager leads when he guides the employees and controls when he checks to see that the work has been done as planned. (p. 574)

Tosi and Carroll define a manager as a person whose position in an organization has at least two characteristics:

1. He makes decisions about how other people, primarily subordinates use resources. Managers usually have the right to decide how those who work for them can use resources needed to accomplish the operative tasks, the execution of work. . . .
2. He is responsible to a higher superior for the supervision of subordinates. (p. 6)

Tosi and Carroll stress that what most sharply distinguishes a manager's job from others in the organization is the responsibility for ensuring that the resources allocated to subordinates in order to achieve objectives are well utilized. Essentially then, managers are responsible for the work of other people.

While some writers define managers in terms of the

characteristics of their position or their basic functions in an organization, other writers have defined or described managers in terms of required personality traits, knowledge, intellectual traits and specific skills (Barnard, 1960; Basil, 1970; Planty & Freeston, 1954; Sayles, 1964; Tead, 1968). However, there is disagreement among these writers as to what constitutes essential or valuable abilities for managers and whether these are intuitive or acquired. This lack of consensus in the literature has important implications for assessing women's ability to be successful managers for, how then, does one determine whether they have managerial abilities?

If one considers that some similarities do exist in the literature on management abilities in how the division between intellectual and cognitive abilities on one hand, and personality characteristics on the other, are made, sex differences in these areas can then be evaluated in terms of whether women are more or less likely to succeed in management positions.

Women's Intellectual and Cognitive Abilities for a Management Career

In 1974, Maccoby and Jacklin reviewed a massive body of research on the psychology of sex differences. Although, as noted by Travis and Offir (1977), the Maccoby and Jacklin review is not the final word on sex differences, it is by far, the most complete and thoughtful summary to date. In the following section, the discussion draws almost exclusively on the Maccoby and Jacklin findings most relevant to sex differences in intellectual, cognitive and personality characteristics.

In their review of research findings in the above areas, Maccoby and Jacklin found that tests of general intelligence did not show any differences between the sexes. This is true they note, because several such tests were originally designed to minimize differences between the sexes. Therefore, in order to assess sex differences we must turn to tests of specific abilities where, as shall be seen, differences between the sexes do emerge.

In general, it was found that girls excel at verbal tasks after age 10 or 11, and boys excel at mathematical and visual spatial tasks from the start of adolescence. Visual spatial skills are involved in tasks where subjects must manipulate objects in space either mentally or physically (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). They note that while boys do excel in math, the magnitude of this difference varies. Also, they stress that the greater skill adolescent boys display on tests calling for spatial ability (generally equated with analytic abilities) should not be taken to mean a generalized superiority in thought process. This is because girls do as well or better on tasks that call for the ability to respond to stimulus without being distracted by its content.

The sexes were found to be similar in task persistance. Maccoby and Jacklin point out that it is sometimes alleged that girls achieve for the praise and approval of others while boys achieve for the sake of sheer intrinsic interest in the task. There is, so far, according to Maccoby and Jacklin, no research evidence to prove this. Both sexes are influenced almost equally by the reactions of parents, teachers and others to their performance.

When Maccoby and Jacklin looked at research dealing with simple rote learning, they found no evidence to support the theory that women perform intellectual tasks in a rote, repetitive manner while men use more complex problem-solving strategies.

Women's Personality Characteristics for a Management Career

As discussed earlier, Henning and Jardim (1977) and Wladis Hoffman (1972) stressed that girls are more dependent than boys, more likely to ask for help, while boys engage in active problem solving with or without the mediation of others. If this were true then it might be expected that differences in performance between men and women working alone or in a group could be detected. Maccoby and Jacklin evaluated sex differences in social ability, such as the need for approval from others, affiliation with others, dependence and empathy, to judge whether there are any sex differences that might affect interpersonal relations and women's job performance. They found very few differences in this area between the sexes. Children of both sexes seek to be close to parents, but are equally ready to leave them to explore a novel environment. Girls do not spend more time than boys interacting with others as playmates.

Up to now, some widely held beliefs about psychological differences have been shown by Maccoby and Jacklin to not be supported by available research evidence. An area where Maccoby and Jacklin did find clear and consistent sex differences was in the area of aggression. They note that boys are more aggressive, both physically and verbally than girls from approximately the age of two years.

It is widely believed that the two sexes may be equivalent in their underlying potential for aggressive behavior, but that girls inhibit the outward displays of aggression because they are more likely to be punished for it. This coincides with the view that differential socialization on the part of teachers and parents affects girls' perception of the behaviors that are appropriate for them to display according to their sex-role orientation and may inhibit their aggressive potential. Maccoby and Jacklin note however that if this were so, girls would exhibit aggressiveness in ways and situations where there would be no repercussions for it. Hence, they disagree with the belief that girls' aggression is more inhibited by punishment.

Since aggression is closely linked to dominance in many people's minds and by some writers is seen as an essential characteristic to the leadership function of management, does this mean that women will be less effective managers because they will tend to be dominated by male colleagues' and subordinates' aggressiveness? Maccoby and Jacklin disagree. They state that as individuals grow older, physical aggression plays a smaller and smaller role in determining who will have leadership. In adulthood, there appears to be little or no relationship between dominance and aggression, since the linkage weakens with increased maturity and there is no intrinsic reason why the more aggressive sex should be the dominant one in adult relationships.

In general then, the differences between the sexes in intellectual, cognitive and personality characteristics are fewer

and less dramatic than most people believe. However, as pointed out by Travis and Offir (1977) we should perhaps be cautious about that fact.

> Even if all the evidence were in and all the stereotypes about men and women turned out to be false, it would not mean that being male is no different than being female. Psychological research tends of necessity to focus on the more obvious and measurable aspects of behavior and personality. But a person's subjective experience is hard to capture on a paper-and-pencil test, and the subtleties of behavior and thought may go unnoticed by an observer in a laboratory. Girls and women probably see the world differently from boys and men. They make different plans and have different experiences. Most important they think of themselves as different—which sets the stage for a self fulfilling prophecy, because when people think they are different, then in some sense they really are. (Travis & Offir, 1977, p. 56)

Given that there are no substantial sex differences established by research in the abilities that are considered by some writers to be essential for managers, one could then assume that women are equally able to succeed in a management career on the basis of their abilities (intellectual and cognitive) and their personality characteristics. But as pointed out in Chapter One of this thesis, very few women, compared to men, are employed in such positions. Also, as noted earlier in this chapter, tentative career choices are first based on interests and later on abilities. The combination of an individual's inclination and abilities toward a particular career area then impacts the career choice process during both the tentative and realistic choice periods.

Women's Inclination toward a Managerial Career

It was noted earlier that, through the socialization process, men and women learn what are appropriate behaviors, attitudes and even

occupational and family-social patterns for them according to their label—male or female. The Broverman et al. study (1970), discussed earlier, delineated those characteristics that are considered descriptive of masculinity and femininity in our society. These characteristics represent stereotypical beliefs about the differing characteristics of men and women. Seldom are masculine characteristics (which are highly valued) attributed to women.

The cultural norms and values of our society that define the stereotypes about masculinity and femininity also extend to define certain jobs as either masculine or feminine pursuits, affecting women's inclination toward them. Given the male-dominance of the workplace, it is not surprising that male characteristics have come to be associated with those attributes required of most professional and occupational roles.

Characteristics such as competitiveness, aggressiveness, independence and rationality are among those used to describe the idealized stereotype of masculinity in our society. These characteristics are among those cited by some authors as desirable managerial characteristics.

The sex-typing of the managerial role as masculine may account in part for women's lack of representation in such positions. If a woman who possesses the abilities required of the managerial role perceives managerial careers as being socially sanctioned primarily for men, the inclination to develop an interest in this career area may be limited. Similarly, if their inclination to choose a management career is limited by their perception of culturally imposed work

sanctions for men and women, their perception of the opportunities for entry in this area will be limited.

Women's Opportunities for Entry to Management Careers

Status inconsistency has been delineated as a factor in the structural components of organizations which can affect women's opportunity for entry to them (Epstein, 1973; Lockheed & Patterson-Hall, 1976; Richardson-Walum, 1976). Richardson-Walum defines status inconsistency as the situation in which ". . . a person may hold different statuses which are inconsistent with the perspective of the culture" (p. 154). Richardson-Walum notes that "meeting someone of the 'wrong' sex (or for that matter of the wrong age, race, ethnic background, class) for an occupation causes dissonance" (p. 154). For example, students with a female professor of engineering would tend to be distracted by the fact that she is female. Therefore, sex, which is irrelevant to the skills required for virtually any occupation, becomes salient when jobs are sex-typed as male or female and affects women's opportunity for entry and advancement to them.

As noted earlier, the cultural norms and values of our society define certain jobs as either masculine or feminine pursuits. Hence, women have difficulty being accepted or advanced within occupations that are not in accord with the roles or characteristics prescribed for them by society. Although this is beginning to change, the statistics reveal that there are still not many women in positions of power or prestige in the work force. "Consequently, co-workers and

others reduce their discomfort in dealing with a woman in these positions [in positions of power or prestige] by focusing on the fact of her femaleness. In short, they make sex salient—when it is objectively irrelevant" (Richardson-Walum, pp. 154-155).

Epstein (1973) points out that the major consequence of a person's acquisition of a status which does not appear to fit with the others held is that irrelevant statuses will be focused upon. This differentiation in status presents implications for women's opportunity and power in the workplace. It serves to inhibit their entry to and advancement within jobs that are sex-typed male and which frequently are potentially the most powerful and prestigious, such as management positions.

Nixon and Gue (1975) have noted the general absence of women in administrative positions within school systems. Within the Edmonton public school system, they found that women were reluctant to apply for administrative positions. "Women teachers hold few expectations for advancement in their careers and many have withdrawn from what they perceive as highly competitive achievement situations" (p. 205).

By comparing female administrators' responses with matched and random sample teacher responses, the teachers' major reasons for not applying for this type of position were outlined. They perceived opportunities for advancement as being restricted for women teachers and did not see administrative tasks as interesting. Also, the administrators stated that they would probably have not applied for

administrative positions had they not received some kind of professional sponsorship.

Henning and Jardim (1977) point out that women may lack an interest in administrative or managerial positions because they have never experienced, learned, then internalized as men do, the skills that apply to such positions through playing sports. Boys, for example, grow up with sports such as football, in which they learn the value of teamwork, persistence and the ability to deal with criticism objectively. They note that these skills are developed by boys in an outdoor classroom from which girls are barred. After five to fifteen years of practicing these skills in sports, men readily recognize their usefulness and importance to management job performance. Women do not see this relationship because they have not had the same opportunities as men. Consequently, women may view management tasks as dull or uninteresting because they have never experienced the use of such skills to their advantage in sports while growing up.

Kanter's (1977) analysis of the structure of organizations reveals that women, more so than men, have difficulty accessing opportunities to increase influence and power within the organization. She notes the important role that sponsors can play in changing this by increasing the signs of power and influence for women. Consequently, a powerful sponsor can help narrow the gap between men's and women's progress upward in the organization.

Career Implementation Process: Management as a Realistic Career Choice Made by Women

Ginzberg et al. (1951) note that the process of career implementation begins when individuals start to specialize their educational choices in areas relevant to a particular occupational area. A woman who chooses management as a career goal area may begin implementing that choice in high school with the decision to take courses that are considered essential for university entrance. This narrowing of educational choices can be conceptualized in Figure 3 as a combination of vertical and radial movement within the career implementation stage. If this same woman chooses to add a French or Latin course to the ones which will allow her university entrance, she will be moving angularly, neither advancing nor retreating from her career goal area. She may still have some years in the educational system to change her career choice and hence, her educational specialization without losing much headway in the completion of the training necessary for a career. Nevertheless, as she advances to higher levels, particularly after completion of undergraduate university training, she must make a firmer commitment to a particular area or she will suffer losses in terms of invested time and money.

Even if she possesses the abilities and inclination for a management career and makes a firm commitment to complete what she perceives as the required education, a woman faces difficulties in staying on such a career path. This is because it will probably involve her in a conflict between society's image of her place within it and her image of happiness.

The Dual-Role Dilemma and Pre-University

While it is true that ability does not necessarily bring a person success in his/her career, when that person is a male, he can expect to do well and derive not only satisfaction from his work but support and approval for it from family and peers. When that person is a female however, she generally cannot count on society for encouragement in kind.

As a member of society, a woman can belong to a number of groups concurrently: family, friends, colleagues, classmates, married, single, employed, non-employed, etc. Her concurrent membership in any of these groups can present her with problems if her needs and desires are expressed in behaviours too divergent from the group standards. Lewin (1951) has said that:

> Such difference is permitted or encouraged in different cultures to different degrees. If the individual should try to diverge too much from the group standards he will find himself in increasing difficulties. He will be ridiculed, treated severely, and finally ousted from the group. Most individuals, therefore, stay pretty close to the standard of the groups they belong to or wish to belong to. (pp. 226-227)

Although Darley (1976) has shown that it is a frequent occurrence with both men and women to experience differentiated role requirements from concurrent group membership, she notes that for women the role requirements are more contradictory than affiliative. She found that women are faced with a dual-role dilemma: fear that success in a career will rule out success with the opposite sex. Further, this kind of dilemma may inhibit occupational and professional achievement. "Women who try to combine the traditional feminine role

of wife and mother with a career are caught between two reference groups which have conflicting values and standards for self-appraisal by their members" (p. 95).

Glazer-Malbin and Younselson Waehrer (1973) noted that:

> A woman's full-time commitment to a job or a career is considered a stumbling block in the fulfillment of her duties as a woman; if she pursues a career she supposedly lessens her likelihood of marrying, while if she does marry, the career woman presumably will neglect her husband and children. (p. 131)

As a woman develops her life goals, she must somehow resolve the successive conflicts that arise between her personal life and her choice of a career. Her resolution of these conflicts may exclude or limit her competition for professional jobs in her choice of and commitment to the necessary educational training. This process may preclude her entrance to post-secondary institutions and results in her entering the labour market after completion of high school. If she does enter university, it may be because she perceives her education, even at that level, as primarily an "insurance policy" against a lack of marriage prospects. The Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada (1970) states that:

> The stereotype of the ideal woman has its effect upon Canadian women. It appears that many women have accepted as truths the social constraints and the mental images that society has prescribed, and have made these constraints and images part of themselves as guides for living. (p. 14)

University

Should a woman make a serious commitment to educational training for a management career and enter university for that purpose, she will tend to experience growing role strain as parental, peer and societal pressures continue to affect her commitment. This role strain, a conflict that is an indication of the contradiction between society's role demands and her personal aspirations, may cause her to exit before completing her professional training for management and discontinuing career plans altogether, or to settling into a job until marriage does become a reality. Alternatively, she may continue with university training but switch into a traditionally female areas such as Education or Arts. If one considers Figure 1 as depicting a career in top management at the apex, the woman who originally entered university with a career goal of management would be placed at some point within the career implementation stage. Should that woman leave university before completion and marry without entering the job market, she would move radially away from the axis, exiting through some point at the periphery to enter another cone with an apex of "Wife and Mother." However, should the woman who enters university with a career choice of management, change her career choice, but complete a university program such as Education or Arts, she will remain in the management cone. Her movement will be radial, towards the periphery but, since she still is potentially able to achieve a management career even though she has made another career choice, she remains within the cone.

Mehra (1974) found that, at the University of Alberta,

approximately 30% of women get married after entrance to university and that one-third of these women voluntarily drop out in good standing. This suggests that marriage is an important factor in women's voluntary withdrawal from university. Mehra contends that:

> Whereas men cited financial difficulty, unsatisfactory college experience and loss of motivation as the three major reasons for their dropping out, in the case of women, marriage ranked first followed by loss of motivation and unsatisfactory college experience. (p. 4)

In a study by Chase (1968), marriage or plans to marry were the reasons most often given by females for dropping out of university. Nearly 46% of the women drop-outs surveyed by Faunce (1968) gave reasons involving marriage, husband, or pregnancy for leaving university. At the time of this follow-up study, nearly 56% of these women were housewives and over 11% were in a traditionally female job such as secretary.

Horner's (1968) "fear of success" measure (negative imagery to achievement in women) and its usefulness as a predictor in the achievement of women has been questioned by Condry and Dyer (1976). They found conflicting evidence concerning its validity and suggested that Horner's concept seemed not to represent a fear of success but rather a fear by women of the negative consequences that could occur as a result of their deviating from traditional sex-role expectations. Male censorship, demonstrated by rejection, "is probably what is most feared by women" (p. 77).

Tomlinson-Keasey (1974) compared the level of fear of success between a group of single younger women coeds and a group of older married women coeds. She found that fear of success was highest in

the younger group. It was suggested that this was attributable to the fact that career/marriage conflicts are at their peak at this age. "Some of the choices and pressures that single women face during college lend credence to this period as an extreme point for anxiety about success" (p. 236). The fact that the older married coeds had already fulfilled the role of wife, and in some cases mother, made them less fearful of male censorship in that they had already attained acceptance as women: they were married.

While on the surface this may appear to contradict Darley's findings about the existence of a dual-role dilemma in women, in fact, the findings are mutually supportive. It is in part the desire to belong that creates role conflicts and the married coeds have already established their belonging. It would be reasonable to assume that their membership in the married group allows career pursuit. Given Darley's study it would also be reasonable to assume that, should the group norms not condone a woman's pursuit of career, conflict would again arise. The fact that the unmarried coeds exhibit a higher fear of success only highlights the point that they have not yet established membership in either the married or the career group.

The Organizational Career for Women in Management

Opportunity, Inclination and Power

A woman who aspires to be a manager may find it difficult to pass through the first boundary organizations offer them—entry directly to management ranks. The right paper qualifications for entry, combined with individual ability, are often not enough for women because these credentials only meet some of the filtering criteria of the hierarchical boundaries to management entry. While they may "pass" on merit and educational levels within this boundary type, women may be seen as not possessing the proper personal characteristics or attitudes necessary to "fit" in with other managers who are most likely to be males. Similarly, inclusion boundaries, which are "guarded" by the group to be entered, are based primarily on norms shared by the majority of the group which, again, is probably male. Since these group norms, as pointed out by Kellen (1972) and Kanter (1977) are largely reflections of the male culture, females who do not share the homogeneity of male backgrounds and culture will find them very difficult to overcome.

If the female aspirant to management accepts a lower paying clerical or secretarial position within the organization, hoping to eventually advance from that position to management entry, she is unlikely to "make it" through the next boundary separating her lower status position from the first level supervisory positions leading to management. This can be attributed largely to the fact that the

hierarchical boundaries separating the two levels are highly impermeable in most organizations since they usually contain no formal routes through and out of them. Kanter (1977) notes that this lack of opportunity for advancement and promotion from these positions presents further implications for the woman holding them. The differentiated hierarchical form of the large organization Kanter studied, "created a structure of opportunity which, in turn, defined the ways people perceived themselves and their jobs" (p. 132). Thus, hierarchy, an organizational characteristic, affects the individual's self-evaluation and is reflected in organizational members' work behaviors.

Low opportunity directly affects one's achievement ambitions, for the less the opportunity, the less people appear to desire advancement. Since women form the majority of those in low opportunity positions, they are affected in the greatest numbers by this differentiation in hierarchy and de-escalate their goals in accordance with perceived opportunity. As the work they do loses its importance and meaning for them, their interest in what Herzberg (1968) called "hygiene factors," such as salary, physical environment, and friends, increases.

Kanter points out that this becomes part of a vicious circle with employers noting women's low work commitment and motivation and discounting them from consideration for promotions. Hence, not only is their progress upward blocked by the hierarchical structure, but the women in this position eventually come to think that what they have is good enough for them and do not aspire to advancement.

Women as First Line Supervisors

Power, as defined by Kanter (1977), is the ". . . ability to get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she is attempting to meet" (p. 166). She describes the powerful as those individuals who are well placed in hierarchies or prestige and status and appear powerful. Because they are seen as having access to the inner circles of decision-making, they are able to influence people around them to want to do things for them.

Schein's model of the structure of organizations (Figure 4) would place the powerful people that Kanter describes at some vertical point inward from the periphery of the cone, indicating that these people moved inward, as well as upward, in the organization and are close to the core of decision-making and power. Similarly, Kanter's description of first line supervisors as people in highly routinized and technically oriented positions, would place them in a fairly low vertical position on the periphery of Schein's model in relatively powerless positions.

Given the relative powerlessness of their positions in the organization, how do women supervisors make themselves more visible, in a positive way, to those in positions able to advance them through the set of boundaries to managerial ranks? The woman supervisor finds herself in a particularly difficult position for promotion. Although the set of boundaries that stood between her advancement from a clerical to a supervisory function are the same set that now stand

between her advancement from supervisor to management, the filtering characteristics of the hierarchical and inclusion boundaries have shifted toward an emphasis on informal bases. While it is true that now she has the necessary experience to meet the functional boundary criterion of some departments in the organization and can access hierarchical routes through and out of her position, the emphasis is now on certain other hierarchical and inclusion boundaries. She is now expected to display more human relations skills and a broader knowledge of the organization in order to cope with the interdepartmental co-ordinating function of middle management positions. However, as a woman, she has brought to her present supervisory position, a heritage of beliefs and assumptions through the socialization process that are different than those of her male counterparts and often filled with ambiguities.

Henning and Jardim (1977) point out that these ambiguities are reflected in the questions that women struggle with: Will I work, or won't I? If I do, then for how long will I work? Will work interfere with marriage and motherhood?

Men, they point out, grow up knowing that they will have to work for the rest of their lives because it is expected of them and they prepare for it. Their work ambitions, even if minimal, are socially sanctioned and legitimate. They have to prove by their work performance that they <u>do not</u> belong, whereas women often have to prove by their work performance that they <u>do</u> belong. "In effect, they [women] have to prove success, and on a continuing basis. They have to prove, given prior and often articulated assumptions that they will, that

their careers will not be dual, discontinuous and, consequently, marked by a lack of commitment—a burden of proof to which a man is never asked to submit" (Henning & Jardim, p. 18). This differentiation in pressures women experience will often cause them to overinvest time and energy to master the technicalities of the job because over-investment will give them legitimacy and, thus, security in their own eyes and the eyes of others.

The social selves they create to fit their work situation are used unconsciously to effect a close supervisory style that does not breed initiative in subordinates nor lend itself to delegating responsibility. As Henning and Jardim point out, "it is a style heavily dependent on self for performance and on formal structure and rules to define both job and performance" (p. 39). While this style serves them well in terms of earning them recognition as the fabled outstanding supervisor and exceeds the standards of behavior required by the organization to succeed in the present position, it leaves no room for the development of desirable or relevant characteristics for a higher position.

Tactically, this is a style constructed of social selves that will serve to block women from consideration for promotion to a position in middle management that requires entirely different tactics. Also, because it may have a basis in the stable social self, it will be very difficult psychologically to relinquish it or adapt it to allow for a change in attitudes, competencies and images of self required for the transition to middle management.

In Henning and Jardim's study (1977) of twenty-five top women managers in American business and industry, two points were identified in these women's careers when the cultural and social biases they faced on the job were crucial to their self-concept and self-ideal. Self-concept referred to the image the person held of herself at any one time, while self-ideal referred to what she really hoped to become (Henning & Jardim, p. 69). The two points in the careers of these twenty-five women which they identified as crucial were (1) the point of choice and entry to a position, and (2) the point at which the individual woman reached her highest career level.

Transition to Middle Management

Kanter points out that people in large organizations need each other for the completion of complex tasks. They become dependent on co-operative effort to get their work done. In the context of this organizationally fostered dependency, she notes that people seem willing to work hard to reduce it. One way of doing this is to align oneself with the powerful—people who can make more independence by creating more certainty in the individual's life.

However, the relative powerlessness of the positions that first line supervisors hold give them little chance to gain visibility and power due to their inability to control relevant sources of information and to solve dependency problems. Their functions do not lend themselves to the demonstration of the extraordinary, nor do they allow for high visibility gained by the solution of problems the organization finds troublesome. How can they offer such solutions

when they do not have access to "inside information" and their areas of control are virtually invisible, usually well within a particular organizational unit?

Kanter notes that powerlessness in an organizational setting where power is needed to help one survive, fosters certain behavioral styles in the powerless. First line supervisors often develop restrictive management styles because of this situation. If people are, or feel they are, powerless in terms of their position within the hierarchy or in terms of their inclusion within the informal power structure, they will tend to exercise heavier control over their area of responsibility in order to increase their feelings of self-esteem and well-being. "Giving orders has profound effects on both the order-giver and the order-taker. The behavior, deportment, and litany of the order-giver reflects his or her position of power and prestige" (Richardson-Walum, 1977, p. 155).

Women in Middle and Upper Management

The person who passes through the boundaries separating first line supervision from managerial ranks has moved up and inward toward the core of Schein's organizational model. This person is now in a position which carries with it a certain amount of legitimate power, that is, one in which the organization has vested a certain amount of authority which is accepted by others as appropriate (Kanter, 1977). However, as the statistics quoted earlier in Chapter I indicate, if that person is a woman, she is also likely to be in a minority position because of her sex. This will have implications for her pattern of interaction with the organization. Kanter notes

that the scarcity of women in such positions creates a situation in which women become tokens or symbols for all women. She explains that this occurs in groups where there is a large preponderance of one kind of person, for example, males, who then become "dominants" and, in effect, control the group. The few of the other type become "tokens," like the minority of women who are in management groups. Kanter calls groups with this imbalance of numbers, skewed groups and points out that its token members must deal with pressures and stresses that dominants do not experience.

The inclusion boundaries that are guarded by the group a token woman enters may be highly impermeable because they are likely based on a background of culture and homogeneity that is largely male. The group members may exaggerate the differences in male and female behaviors by indulging in more behaviors that are considered "masculine," such as, backslapping, recounting off-color jokes, and evaluating women as prospective romantic partners. In effect, this exaggeration of differences is a means of showing the new woman member that she does not belong in the group. Kanter classifies this as one of the tactics of boundary heightening. She notes that boundary heightening tends to occur when an obvious outsider appears and is seen as threatening a group's collectivity. Hence, the group will attempt to keep a female member on the periphery of decision-making in that group which, in turn, reduces her power.

Another boundary heightening tactic Kanter describes is that of accepting a token woman in the group by "casting" her in a stereotypic role. It could be hypothesized that this occurs because many

male managers have not had to construct a pattern of behavior to deal with women as equals in work situations. As a result, they tend to "fall back" on using forms of interactions that are based on social situations with which they are familiar. Hence, women are mothers, sisters, wives (and other romantic partners), or work subordinates. It then becomes very difficult for women managers to be accepted on the basis of their talents or merits as managers, when they are judged on the basis of these stereotypes. Further, this type of interaction excludes them from many of the personal growth experiences and opportunities for advancement that are shared by males who are accepted as members of equal status by their colleagues.

Women are not perceived as powerful and therefore do not seem to have anything to offer the peers with whom they might attempt to form alliances for mutual support and help in increasing their share of the organization's resources. Powerful sponsors, who are generally male, often will not consider them as proteges because they do not share the homogeneity of male backgrounds and culture, and, consequently, are not perceived as trustworthy enough to be drawn closer to the inner circle of decision-making. Subordinates may perceive them to be capable, at most, of no more than individual advancement. Thus, any leverage they might have with subordinates in offering them opportunities for advancement (reward power) is also reduced. Consequently, the women who do move up the organizational hierarchy will have difficulties moving inward toward the centre of decision-making and power.

If women do find acceptance within the group guarding the

inclusion boundaries, it often may be on the condition that they conform to the stereotypes the group imposes on them. Conversely, if they resist responding to stereotypic norms of behavior, they may be labelled as cold, unfeminine women and isolated from the informal dimension of peer interactions where much valuable information about the organization is frequently exchanged. It is during those times that problems and issues are posed along with many solutions; attitudes are expressed; and a large body of professional etiquette is learned.

Summary of Chapter II

Individual careers are described as having three stages: (1) the career choice process, (2) the career implementation process, and (3) the organizational career. Three areas are identified as being of particular importance to people's career choices, career implementation and organizational careers. How these areas, (1) ability, (2) inclination, and (3) opportunity are affected by the socialization process and, in turn, affect the three stages of a career for women in management are examined.

It is shown that women, more so than men, have great difficulty in making a decisions as to whether they want a particular career, especially if it is a traditionally male one such as management. Once they decide to retain a career choice of management, they continue to have difficulties entering and advancing within that choice.

As soon as they enter a field such as management which is

seen as requiring some competitive action and aggressiveness, they are viewed with suspicion and discomfort. If they sit back and try to comply with stereotypic norms of behavior, they are seen as inadequate and powerless. Those that try to find their own compromises somewhere in the middle find it very difficult because, all the while, they may feel on trial, not as individuals, but as representatives of women in general.

Chapter III

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to describe: (1) the development of the questionnaire, (2) the population, (3) the collection of data, (4) the returns, and (5) the statistical procedures.

The Development of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix C) was adapted from one designed by Crawford (1977). Permission to adapt Crawford's instrument for this study was obtained by telephone from Mr. Forkner of the Forkner Publishing Corporation, Ridgewood, New Jersey. The questionnaire, as adapted from Crawford's instrument, consisted of four main parts: (1) General Background, (2) Job Situations Peculiar to Women, (3) Self-Perceptions, and (4) Perceptions of the Organization.

Sections (1), (2) and (3) of the questionnaire remain virtually unchanged from Crawford's original questionnaire, with the exception of word substitutions, the deletion of an item and the addition of an item. Section (2) of Crawford's original instrument entitled "Job Activities" was omitted as it was not related to the purposes of this study. The new items, word substitutions and item deletions were utilized to make the instrument more applicable to post-secondary educational institutions. These were necessary because Crawford's instrument contained wording more suitable for the

population she surveyed—women managers in private business corporations.

Crawford generated the items for categories (1), (2) and (3) above, through a review of the literature, discussions with women in management and with persons in the educational field. From these sources, she identified the most relevant points for her study and incorporated them in her questionnaire. The items for category (4) above, were designed by the researcher and generated for this study through a review of the literature and discussions with women administrators and researchers in the educational field. The purposes of Crawford's study were sufficiently related to the purposes of this study to utilize parts of her questionnaire.

Crawford used the General Background items to obtain a general profile of the women in middle management positions in Minneapolis and St. Paul industries. In this study, Crawford's "General Background" items were used to obtain a general profile of the women administrators in six Alberta community colleges. The "Job Situations Peculiar to Women" item category was designed by Crawford "to shed light on stereotypes and possible problems still present in this area of the country [St. Paul and Minneapolis]" (Crawford, 1977, p. 36) and was used in this study to provide information on how women administrators view their jobs.

The "Self-Perceptions" item category was designed by Crawford to provide information on how the respondents felt about themselves as women and as managers, and was used in this study to provide information on how the respondents felt about themselves as women

and as educational administrators.

The "Perceptions of the Organization" item category, developed for this study, was used to provide information on how women administrators perceive their organizations. Crawford's "Job Activities" item category was omitted as it was designed to generate curriculum to be included in a management program for women. Hence, it was not relevant to this study.

Pilot Study

Prior to beginning this study, a group of 11 women teachers and administrators from the Department of Educational Administration Master's program and teaching staff, University of Alberta, and from the Personnel Department, Government of Alberta, were asked to participate in a pilot study.

The pilot study revealed: (1) the need to add and delete items in categories (1), (2) and (3), (2) the need to increase overall spacing of item response categories, (3) the need to clarify the wording of some of the items in category (1), (2) and (4), and (4) the need to number response categories for purposes of tabulation. The original questionnaire and pilot study instructions for participants have been placed in Appendix A.

The Population

The specific purposes of this study were to provide the answers to the following questions:

1. What is the general profile of women administrators in

Grant MacEwan Community College, Medicine Hat College, Mount Royal College, Lethbridge Community College, Red Deer College and Grande Prairie Regional College?

2. Do women administrators perceive any factors within their respective organizations which enhance or inhibit the employment and career advancement of women administrators?

3. If these women administrators did perceive enhancing or inhibiting factors as described in (2), what are these factors?

4. How are women administrators' careers affected by their perceptions of these factors?

5. How do women administrators perceive themselves: (a) on the job, (b) in general, (c) as wives, and (4) as mothers?

6. Are women administrators themselves obstacles to their progression in community colleges/

The community colleges were included in this study on the basis of having the following characteristics in common:

1. Each is a post-secondary, non-university educational institution, identified by Heron (1972) as a community college in Alberta.

2. As of 1978, each college had been accepting students for at least five years.

3. As of 1978, each college had a Board of Governors or Trustees appointed from its surrounding community for at least one year.

3. Each college is a publicly supported community college. As the only post-secondary, non-university educational

institutions operating in Alberta possessing the above characteristics the six community colleges included in this study were considered to be unique.

The subjects in this study were the total number of women classified by these six organizations as administrators as they were considered to form a total population of a particular type.

On November 4th, 1978, a letter (see Appendix B) was sent to the President of each of the six colleges explaining the purpose of the study. The names of the women in their colleges who were classified as administrators and to whom a questionnaire could be mailed were requested from each President.

The Collection of Data

Since the lists of female administrators received from each college only totalled a small number of women (45), it was felt that a high percentage of returns would be critical. In order to help increase the chance of a higher percentage of returns, the researcher felt that it would be beneficial to meet with the women who agreed to participate in the study and pick up their questionnaires individually.

Consequently, upon receipt of the names of the women administrators from each college, a letter was sent on November 20th, 1978 to each woman administrator, explaining the purposes of the study and the importance of each woman's participation (see Appendix B). Enclosed with each letter was a form (see Appendix B) which the participants could complete, indicating whether they wished to participate in the study. One woman declined to participate and one

woman, on leave of absence, was not available.

On November 30th, a second letter was sent to each of the 43 women who indicated they would participate, thanking them for their interest in the study and asking them to complete the attached questionnaire (see Appendix B). As in the first letter, they were also reminded that the researcher would be contacting them by phone to arrange a mutually convenient time in which to meet them and pick up their questionnaire. During the second week of December 1978, the researcher arranged appointments with the participants for January 1979. Those who were not available for a short meeting generally arranged with the researcher to leave their completed questionnaires in a sealed envelope at some designated point where they could be collected.

Special arrangements were made with the participants at two of the colleges to either mail their questionnaires directly to the researcher or to have them picked up and delivered to the researcher by a visiting University of Alberta Educational Administration instructor.

The Returns

By February 1, 1979, all 43 of the questionnaires had been returned. Subsequent analysis of the returns determined that two of the respondents were ineligible as participants based on the criteria for an administrator as set out in Chapter I of this study, i.e., one woman was an administrator within a faculty association but not within the institution; the other was in fact solely a

faculty member. This left 41 participants in the study.

On the basis of return rate of questionnaires (i.e., 43 out of 43), the return rate was 100 percent. However, given that the actual population includes the woman who declined and the woman who was unavailable, it is probably more accurate to record the return rate as 41 out of 43 (or 95.3 percent).

The Statistical Procedures

Frequency distributions with percentages and Pearson correlations were used: (1) to obtain a general profile of the women in this study, (2) to determine whether they perceived any factors within their respective organizations which inhibited or helped the employment and advancement of women administrators, (3) to determine what these factors are (if any), (4) to determine their perceptions about how their careers were most affected by these factors, (5) to determine how they perceive themselves: (a) in general, (b) on the job, (c) as wives, and (d) as mothers, and (6) to determine whether they are themselves legitimate obstacles to their career progression in colleges.

Summary

The questionnaire items for categories (1), (2) and (3) were adapted from a questionnaire designed by Crawford (1977). The questionnaire items for category (4) were created by the researcher through a review of the literature and discussions with women administrators and researchers in the educational field. The

four questionnaire categories were entitled as follows: (1) General Background, (2) Job Situations Peculiar to Women, (3) Self-Perceptions and (4) Perceptions of the Organization. The questionnaire was seven pages in length.

The population consisted of 41 of the women classified as educational administrators by the six following Alberta community colleges: (1) Grande Prairie Regional College, (2) Grant MacEwan Community College, (3) Medicine Hat College, (4) Mount Royal College, (5) Lethbridge Community College, and (6) Red Deer College. The community colleges were included in this study on the basis of having the following characteristics in common:

1. Each is a post-secondary, non-university educational institution, identified by Heron (1972) as a community college in Alberta.

2. As of 1978, each college had been accepting students for at least five years.

3. As of 1978, each college had a Board of Governors or Trustees appointed from its surrounding community for at least one year.

4. Each college is a publicly supported community college.

As the only post-secondary, non-university educational institutions operating in Alberta possessing the above characteristics at the time this study was conducted, the six community colleges included in this study were considered to be unique.

The participants in this study were the total number of women classified by these six organizations as administrators as they were

considered to form a total population of a peculiar type. Of the total population of 45 women, 1 women declined to participate, 1 woman, on leave of absence, was not available and 2 women were disqualified as participants by the researcher. Forty one participants received and completed the questionnaire. Forty one questionnaires were returned for a return rate of 100 percent.

The statistical procedures used to analyze the above data were frequency distributions with percentages and Pearson correlations.

Chapter IV

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

This chapter presents the frequency distributions and correlations used: (1) to obtain a general profile of the women in this study, (2) to determine whether women administrators perceive any factors within their respective organizations which enhance or inhibit the employment and advancement of women administrators, (3) to determine what (if any) these factors are, (4) to determine how women administrators perceive their careers to be affected by these factors, and (5) to determine whether women administrators, are themselves legitimate obstacles to their career progression in colleges.

The number of women responding as reported in each of the tables of this chapter is 41 (N = 41) unless otherwise stated.

A General Profile

The population chosen for this study was women in education administration positions in six Alberta Community Colleges. The following paragraphs will present results of the frequency distributions on the following aspects of their lives: (1) personal and job information, (2) family background, (3) marital background, (4) husband's status, (5) children, and (6) household and child care help.

Personal and Job Information

The age of respondents is presented in Table 1. The largest number of respondents, 12 (or 30.0 percent) are in the 26 to 31 years

of age category, with the next largest number, 9 (or 22.5 percent) in the 44 to 49 years of age category.

Table 1

Respondents' Ages

Response Category (Years)	Frequency (N = 40)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
20-25	1	2.5
26-31	12	30.0
32-37	8	20.0
38-43	8	20.0
44-49	9	22.5
50-55	1	2.5
56-61	1	2.5

The educational background of the women in this study, shown in Table 2, indicates that at least 70 percent have a Bachelor's degree, 41 percent have Master's degrees and 7 percent have Doctorates. A breakdown of the degree areas at the undergraduate and graduate levels is shown in Table 3. Of the 36 undergraduate degrees held by the 29 women at the Bachelor's level, no one major specialization is dominant. Only in two areas does the percentage of all Bachelor's degrees granted rise above 10 percent—Education, 13.9 percent and Nursing, 11.1 percent. This finding may not be surprising if the assumption is made that in educational institutions most administrative

Table 2

Educational Attainment of Respondents*

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Less than high school	2	4.9
High school graduate	32	78.0
Business school	5	12.2
Some college	4	9.8
Some university	6	14.6
College graduate	3	7.3
University graduate	29	70.7
Master's degree	17	41.5
Doctorate	3	7.3

Note. The percentages do not equal 100 percent because a woman may be included more than once in the above figures, i.e., she may be a business school graduate and hold a Master's degree and a Doctorate; she may have graduated from vocational school and a college or university also.

*For more detailed information on the respondents' specializations in business school and vocational school see Appendix D.

Table 3

Bachelor's, Master's and Doctorate Degree Majors of Respondents

	Degree Type Frequency					
	Frequency of Bachelor		Frequency of Master's		Frequency of Doctorate	
Major	No.	Relative (%) (N = 36)	No.	Relative (%) (N = 17)	No.	Relative (%) (N = 3)
Sociology	2	5.6				
Library Science	2	5.6	1	5.9		
Education	5	13.9	6	35.3	2	66.7
Early Childhood Educ.	2	5.6				
Nursing Education	2	5.6	1	5.9		
Psychology	3	8.3				
Political Science			1	5.9		
English	3	8.3				
Social Work	1	2.8				
Curriculum Instruction			1	5.9	1	33.3
Public Health	2	5.6				
Law	1	2.8	1	5.9		
Food Nutrition	1	2.8				
Commerce/Marketing	1	2.8				
Biology	1	2.8				
Student Personnel			1	5.9		
Nursing	4	11.1	2	11.8		
Nursing Administration			2	11.8		
Education Administration			1	5.9		
Anthropology	1	2.8				
Interior Design	1	2.8				
Drama/Dance	1	2.8				
Unspecified Major	3	8.3				

Note. The number of Bachelor degrees in the above table does not correspond with the number of respondents in Table 2 who are university graduates because 7 respondents held more than one Bachelor's degree.

positions are held by people promoted from the instructional ranks. The data presented in Table 4 support this assumption. Of the 21 respondents who were promoted to their present positions, the largest number, 13 (or 61.9 percent) cite academic related positions as the type of position they last held before being promoted. Academic related positions were defined as part-time or full-time instructor positions.

Table 4

Entry Positions of Promoted Respondents to Present Jobs

	Frequency (N = 21)	
Response Category	Absolute	Relative (%)
Office Related	2	9.5
Academic Related	13	61.9
Service Related	2	9.5
Administration Related	4	19.0

Categories for the remaining positions cited in Table 4 were defined as follows: office related, i.e., secretary, typist, clerk, etc.; service related, i.e., librarian, library technician, etc.; administration related, i.e., administrative assistant, manager, coordinator, chairperson and dean.

Only five women (or 12.2 percent) took special training to receive their promotions. Two of these women indicated that this training involved completing university degrees with one of them completing a Ph.D. program and the other completing a Bachelor of

Science degree. The three remaining women completed an assortment of courses at the community college level as well as individual credit and non-credit courses in psychology and management at the university level.

As indicated in Table 5, the largest number of respondents, 28 (or 68.3 percent) began their educational administrative plans while working. The next largest number of respondents, 6 (or 14.6 percent) indicated that they had never really planned to be educational administrators. Their present positions were obtained either because it was offered to them without their specifically applying for it or because it became available while they were already in the employ of their college and they applied.

In Henning and Jardim's (1977) study of successful women executives, it was found in interview after interview with these women that typically, the decision to pursue a career had been made relatively late in their working lives. At the age of 30 to 33, these women suddenly realized that they were going to have to work for the rest of their lives. In some cases, it was a sudden realization on their part that they enjoyed their work and that it had much more meaning than something done just to pass the time (Henning and Jardim, 1977, p. 6).

Henning and Jardim point out that typically women do not plan a career—unlike men who use the critical years in their twenties to build the foundations of their careers. The findings of this study presented in Table 5 would tend to support the belief that women do not plan careers—they tend to just let them happen.

Table 5

When Respondents' Managerial Plans Began

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
In high school	1	2.4
In university	5	12.2
While working	28	68.3
Other:		
I didn't plan in advance/offered the job without applying for it	6	14.6
While attending vocational school	1	2.4

This might also explain why, in Table 3, no one major subject specialization dominates the undergraduate degrees held by the women at the Bachelor's level, but does at the Master's level. The largest percentage of Master's degrees (41.2 percent) is focused in Education or Education Administration. Since the largest number of women administrators in this study began their plans for careers in educational administration while already employed (see Table 5), one could assume that their focus shifted to Education/Educational Administration specializations at the Master's level in accordance with those plans.

The job titles and functional areas of the 41 respondents are presented in Table 6. While all 41 respondents hold administrative positions, the largest number of them, 24 (or 80.0 percent) are in functional areas that are designated as support services, i.e., Personnel, Food Services, Library Services, Student Services, or functional areas traditionally dominated by women, i.e., Secretarial Science, Early Childhood Education, Nursing and General Office.

In Kanter's (1977) study of women in a large corporation, she found that women could advance, albeit with some difficulty, from secretarial positions to supervisory levels in general offices but that the next step to management was a much more difficult one. This is because the boundary between supervisory levels and management was much more impermeable than the boundary between secretarial positions and supervisory positions. It is interesting to note that in this study, the women classified by their respective colleges as administrators in the General Office category are below or at the supervisor level.

Table 6

Job Titles and Functional Areas of Respondents

Functional Area	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
General Office:		
- Administrative Assistant	1	2.4
- Supervisor	2	4.9
- Manager	1	2.4
General Office total	4	9.8
Library/Learning Resources:		
- Supervisor	2	4.9
- Chief Librarian	1	2.4
- Acting Chairperson	1	2.4
Library total	4	9.8
Continuing Education:		
- Coordinator	3	7.3
- Continuing Education Officer	1	2.4
Continuing Education total	4	9.8
Nursing/Health Services:		
- Director	1	2.4
- Chairperson	3	7.3
- Section Head	1	2.4
- Acting Coordinator	1	2.4
Nursing/Health Services total	6	14.6
Early Childhood Education:		
- Section Head	1	2.4
- Day Care Coordinator	1	2.4
Early Childhood Education total	2	4.9
Food Services:		
- Director	1	2.4
Food Services total	1	2.4

Table 6 (continued)

Functional Area	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Educational Development:		
- Dean	1	2.4
Educational Development total	1	2.4
Secretarial Sciences:		
- Coordinator	1	2.4
Secretarial Sciences total	1	2.4
Merchandising:		
- Program Head	1	2.4
Merchandising total	1	2.4
Personnel:		
- Personnel Officer	2	4.9
Personnel total	2	4.9
Student Services/Information:		
- Coordinator	1	2.4
- Residence Manager	1	2.4
- Director	1	2.4
- Information	1	2.4
Student Services/Information total	4	9.8
Other:		
- Program Head	3	7.3
- Chairperson	1	2.4
- Section Head	3	7.3
- Supervisor	1	2.4
- Coordinator	3	7.3
Other total	11	26.8

Only 20 percent (or 6 women) in this study are in relatively non-traditional functional areas such as Continuing Education, Educational Development and Merchandising. The category "non-traditional" is defined here to include functional areas not traditionally dominated by women in the Canadian work force as, for example, have been Nursing, Library Services, Secretarial Science, etc.

The position distance in terms of hierarchical reporting relationships of respondents from their College President's position is presented in Table 7. The largest number of respondents, 13 (or 35.1 percent) have two positions between their own and their President's. When a correlation was computed between respondents' position distance from the President and respondents' ages, the Pearson r = -.4018 at a significance level of .005 (N = 40).

Table 7

Distance from President

Response Category (No. of Positions from President)	Frequency (N = 37)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
0 (Reports directly)	4	10.8
1	10	27.0
2	13	35.1
3	8	21.6
4	1	2.7
5	1	2.7

Thus, as the number of positions between the respondent's and President's increased, the respondent's age decreased. This is not surprising if one assumes that seniority in an organization is usually

proportionate to years of work experience attained. People at the highest levels of an organization would tend to have more work experience and because of this, tend to be older.

One might assume then that there would be a correlation between respondents' position distance from the President and respondents' length of employment. However, when this correlation was computed it was not significant.

As shown in Table 8, the largest number of respondents, 22 or (53.7 percent) have been employed over one year to five years in their respective colleges. However, no data was collected on the respondents' total years of work experience accumulated outside their respective colleges. If this information had been correlated with position distance from the President a significant correlation may have been found.

Table 8

Respondents' Length of Employment in Their Respective Colleges

Response Category (Years)	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Under 1	3	7.3
Over 1 to 5	22	53.7
Over 5 to 10	16	39.0

The respondents' salaries are presented in Table 9. The largest number of respondents, 28 (or 68.3 percent) presently earn between $20,000 and $29,999 per year.

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THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

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WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS IN ALBERTA COMMUNITY COLLEGES.

Table 9

Respondents' Salaries

Response Category ($/year)	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
$10,000-14,999	2	4.9
$15,000-19,999	7	17.1
$20,000-29,999	28	68.3
$30,000-39,999	4	9.8

Most of the women in this study do not appear to be having problems receiving equal pay for equal work. The majority of respondents, 34 (or 89.5 percent) believe that their salaries are comparable with men's salaries for the same jobs in their colleges (see Table 10).

Table 10

Respondents' Salaries as Compared with Men's Salaries for the Same Jobs in their Colleges

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Salary comparable	34	89.5
Salary not comparable	4	10.5

Only 20 percent (or 8 women of the 40 respondents) indicate that, to their knowledge, they were paid less than men for the same work within the past five years (see Table 11).

Table 11

Men Paid more than Respondents for the Same Work within the Last Five Years

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Men paid more	8	20.0
Men not paid more	32	80.0

The findings in Table 12 indicate that the majority of women administrators, 76.2 percent (or 16 of 21 promoted respondents) were promoted to their present positions after holding one previous job in their colleges.

Table 12

Number of Jobs Held by Promoted Respondents Before Reaching Present Position

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
One job	16	76.2
Two jobs	4	19.0
Five jobs	1	4.8

It would appear from the findings presented in Tables 13 and 14 that very few of the respondents feel that they have been affected by inequality in promotion practices.

Only 2 respondents (or 4.9 percent) feel that they have lost a promotion to a man when they were equally qualified for the job.

Table 13

Promotion Lost to a Man

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Promotion lost	2	4.9
Promotion not lost	39	95.1

Table 14

Respondents' Passed up for Promotion because It Meant Travelling Alone or with Men

Response Category	Travelling Alone Frequency (N=37)		Travelling with Men Frequency (N=36)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
Passed up for promotion	1	2.7	2	5.6
Not passed up for promotion	36	97.3	34	94.4

Only 1 respondent (or 2.7 percent) felt that she was passed up for promotion because it meant travelling alone. Also, only 2 respondents (or 5.6 percent) felt that they were passed up for promotion because it meant travelling with men.

Although the majority of respondents who were promoted to their present positions (see Table 15) did not begin making plans for a career in educational administration until they were already working (see Table 5), it would appear that from the results in Table 15, once plans were made in this area, the large majority of

women remained committed to these plans. As indicated in Table 16, very few respondents, 4 (or 9.8 percent) have ever turned down a promotion.

Table 15

Number of Respondents Hired for or Promoted to Present Position

Response Category	Frequency (N = 39)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Hired for present position	18	46.2
Promoted to present position	21	58.3

Table 16

Number of Respondents Who Turned Down a Promotion Within the Past Five Years

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Turned down a promotion	4	9.8
Did not turn down a promotion	37	90.2

Only one of the four women who turned down a promotion cited family responsibilities as the reason for her decision. It would seem then that the added responsibilities of a promotion do not appear to create conflicts in the home for most of the women in this study.

Family Background

Henning and Jardim (1977) indicate in their study of women executives, that the majority of these women (22 of the total 25 interviewed) had fathers in management positions in business. These women executives reported that their fathers were the people who most influenced their career choice of management. It was their fathers who taught these women a great deal about the practical side of management before they had even entered college.

However, very few of the women in this study had a father whose principal occupation was professional with managerial responsibilities. As can be seen in Table 17, only 10 women (or 28.6 percent) had fathers in this category while the largest number of women, 16 (or 45.7 percent) had a father in the skilled occupation category.

Table 17

Father's and Mother's Principal Occupation while Respondents were Growing Up

	Father Frequency (N=35)		Mother Frequency (N=41)	
Response Category	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
Unskilled	7	20.0	3	7.3
Skilled	16	45.7	6	14.6
Professional without managerial responsibilities	2	5.7	2	4.9
Professional with managerial responsibilities	10	28.6	3	7.3
Not employed			27	65.9

Also, according to the data presented in Table 18, very few women (3 or 7.7 percent) cite their father as the person who most influenced their career choice. In fact, the person most often cited by respondents as influencing their career choice was "self," with 10 women (or 25.6 percent) choosing this category. This is not surprising when one considers that most of the women in this study began to plan for an administrative career rather late—while they were already working.

Table 18

Person or Thing Most Influencing Career Choice

Response Category	Frequency (N = 39)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Father	3	7.7
Mother	3	7.7
Both parents	7	17.9
Instructor	2	5.1
Other: Encouragement from work colleagues	5	12.8
Offer of a scholarship	1	2.6
Self	10	25.6
Husband	3	7.7
Friends	1	2.6
University brochure	1	2.6
Don't know	2	5.1

Epstein (1973) notes that the woman manager is usually an only child or the eldest child in the family. Henning and Jardim (1977) found this to be true for twenty out of the twenty-five women executives they interviewed for their study. These women spoke of feeling as children that they assumed a special role in their parents' eyes. They had especially close relationships with their fathers. Crawford (1977) also found that over half of the 174 women managers in her study (105 women or 60.3 percent) were either only children or the oldest child in their families. She notes that these women may also have experienced the traditional encouragement to achieve usually extended to the eldest son by their parents.

As indicated in Table 19, the largest number of women in this study, 22 (or 53.7 percent) were not the eldest or only child. However, the numbers are almost evenly divided with 46.3 percent (or 14 women) in the only or oldest child category.

Table 19

Respondents' Position in Family

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Only child	5	12.2
Eldest child	14	34.1
Other	22	53.7

The educational attainment levels of the respondents' parents are presented in Table 20. As can be seen, only a small number of

the parents hold either undergraduate or graduate degrees. For more detailed information on the undergraduate and graduate degree majors of the respondents' parents see Table 3 in Appendix D.

Table 20

Father's and Mother's Educational Attainment Level

	Father Frequency (N=35)		Mother Frequency (N=41)	
Response Category	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
Less than high school	20	57.1	17	41.5
High school graduate	12	34.3	20	48.9
Business school	1	2.9	6	14.6
Vocational school	2	5.7	1	2.4
Some college	2	5.7	2	4.9
Some university	1	2.9	3	7.3
College graduate			2	4.9
University graduate	5	14.3	2	4.9
Master's	1	2.9	1	2.4
Ph.D.	1	2.9		
Other	3	8.6	3	7.3

Note. The percentages do not equal 100% in the above figures because a person may be included more than once, i.e., he or she may be business school graduates as well as holding a Master's or Ph.D. degree.

Marital Background

In this section, tables record responses from the 32 women who are or were married. Relative frequencies do not total 100% since each woman could have responded in more than one response category item.

As the results in Table 21 indicate, the majority of respondents, 32 (or 80 percent) are now or have been married.

Table 21

Respondents' Marital Backgrounds

Response Category	Frequency (N = 40)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Never married	8	20.0
Married	24	60.0
Separated	1	2.5
Divorced	6	15.0
Widowed	1	2.5

Epstein (1973) and Lewin (1951) have noted that as a member of society, a woman can belong to a number of groups concurrently: family, friends, colleagues, classmates, married, single, employed, non-employed, etc. Although Darley (1976) has shown that it is a frequent occurrence with both men and women to experience differentiated role requirements from concurrent group membership, she notes that for women, the role requirements are more contradictory than affiliative. This is why married women who work are sometimes

faced with conflicts between their roles as wives or mothers and their roles as career women. These women find themselves caught between two reference groups which have conflicting values and standards for self-appraisal by their members. Should the group norms of the married group not condone a woman's pursuit of a career role conflict for the woman could arise.

Given Darley's findings, one could assume that a woman's husband's feelings about his wife's career, his willingness to share household or child care tasks and his overall support generally of her career goals can do much toward helping her overcome or avoid role conflicts.

According to the results presented in Tables 22 and 23, it would appear that most of the women in this study have this support and encouragement from their husbands. The largest number of women, 18 (or 64.3 percent) feel that their husbands are proud of their careers.

Table 22

Husbands' Feelings about Respondents' Careers

Response Category		Frequency (N = 28)	
		Absolute	Relative (%)
Proud	5	18	64.3
	4	5	17.9
	3	1	3.6
	2	2	6.3
Resent	1	2	6.3

A large number of women (23 or 71.9 percent) say that their husbands have been assets to their careers in two major areas: (1) through their moral support and encouragement of their wives, and (2) through their help with household tasks.

Table 23

Ways in which Respondents' Husbands have been Assets to their Careers

Response Category	Frequency (N = 32)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Through moral support/encouragement	23	71.9
Help with the children	14	43.8
Help with household tasks	23	71.9
Expertise/knowledge in wife's field	8	18.8
Others: Sounding board	1	3.1
Overall support	1	3.1
Ability to get along with wife's colleagues)	1	3.1

Areas which the respondents in this study felt are or could be problems in their marriages are presented in Tables 24 and 25. In both tables, the wife being asked to transfer was cited most often by respondents as a present or possible job related problem in marriages.

Table 24

Job Related Problems in Respondents' Marriages

Response Category	Frequency (N = 32)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Wife makes more money	2	6.3
Wife advances to higher position	3	9.4
Husband asked to transfer	2	6.3
Wife asked to transfer	5	15.6
Others: Wife's involvement in after work committees	1	3.1
Time demands on husband to share household duties	1	3.1

Table 25

Possible Job Related Problems in Respondents' Marriages

Response Category	Frequency (N = 32)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Wife makes more money	7	21.9
Wife advances to higher position	6	18.8
Husband asked to transfer	9	28.1
Wife asked to transfer	14	43.8

Husband's Status

Although data were collected in this study on the respondents' present or past husbands' job titles, income and educational levels, these data will not be presented here due to a weakness in the design of these items in the instrument.

All respondents who were or are now married were asked to answer these items. It was not originally recognized by the researcher that some of the information collected would be considerably out-of-date as widowed, separated and divorced respondents would answer these items based on the time they were married. Also, depending on the length of time these respondents had been divorced, widowed or separated, there would be no way to even ascertain how much out-of-date this information might be.

Since these items were originally included in the instrument so that their results could be compared with the results on the items requesting respondents' present job titles, incomes and educational levels, their tabulation and comparison would serve little or no purpose. Therefore, they have been omitted from the data analysis.

Children

In this study, only women who are married or who have been married have children. Of the 32 women in these categories, 19 women have children.

A number of researchers, Nye (1975), Bardwick (1971) and Wladis Hoffman (1975) have pointed out that the number of children a woman has may have an effect on her work performance and her ability

to care for her children. However, Crawford (1977) notes that it is not only the number of children a woman may have, but the ages of these children that may affect her work performance and her ability to care for them.

The age groupings and number of respondents' children presented in Table 26 indicate that the highest number of children are in the older age categories. Nine respondents have children in the 13 to 18 years of age category and 9 respondents have children in the over 18 years of age category. Only 3 respondents have children in the youngest age category (0 to 5 years).

As indicated in Table 27, the largest number of respondents, 15 or (51.7 percent) use some type of household or child care help.

Job Situations Peculiar to Women

Although women managers have the same management problems as males in these positions, Kanter (1977) has pointed out that women in management often have to deal with situations and pressures that their male counterparts do not experience. This is because women managers are in positions which have traditionally been occupied only by men.

In this section of this study, women administrators were asked about some of the aspects of their work situations that are peculiar to women.

Luncheon and Other Informal Social Gatherings

It is often during the informal discussions that take place among colleagues in casual interactions over lunches or social

Table 26

Number of Children by Age Group

Response Category (No. of children)	Age of Children (Years)							
	0-5		6-12		13-18		Over 18	
	Frequency (N = 21)		Frequency (N = 21)		Frequency (N = 21)		Frequency (N = 21)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
1	2	9.5	7	33.3	4	19.0	1	4.8
2	1	4.8	3	14.3	5	23.8	6	28.6
3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4.8
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4.8

Note. 20 women of the 41 do not have children.

Table 27

Type of Household/Child Care Help Used
by Respondents

Response Category	Frequency (N = 29)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Day baby sitter	1	3.4
Day care/nursery school	2	6.9
Full-time housekeeper (live out)	2	6.9
Cleaning woman	10	34.5
None of the above	14	48.3

gatherings, that individuals have the opportunity to learn a large body of professional etiquette or major items of information that could be very useful to their career progress. According to Kanter (1977) women managers are sometimes excluded from these gatherings by their male colleagues because they are perceived to be "different" and perhaps not to be trusted. Their male colleagues usually dominate in management groups that are mostly male, share group norms and values among themselves and are sometimes reluctant to accept women as equals in these groups. As Kanter points out, these males "guard" the entry to their group by engaging in behaviors that will make it difficult for the women members to feel comfortable.

The women in this study were asked whether they were included in informal gatherings by their male colleagues. According to the results presented in Tables 28, 29 and 30, it would seem that the majority of women feel included, if not always, then at least sometimes, in luncheon gatherings (38 or 97.5 percent) and other social gatherings (33 or 82.5 percent) with male colleagues. Most of them also indicate that they have access to office information (32 or 80 percent).

It would also appear from the results presented in Table 31, that the majority of the respondents, 29 women (or 82.9 percent) feel accepted by their male colleagues at lunch gatherings and are not singled out as women.

Very few of the respondents (5 or 14.3 percent) feel it to be an uncomfortable situation if they try to pay the cheque at these lunches (see Table 32).

Table 28

Respondents Included in Luncheon Gatherings with Male Colleagues

Response Category	Frequency (N = 39)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Not included in luncheon gatherings	1	2.6
Always included in luncheon gatherings	26	66.7
Sometimes included in luncheon gatherings	12	30.8

Table 29

Respondents who Feel Included in Social Gatherings with Male Colleagues

Response Category	Frequency (N = 40)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Always included	15	37.5
Sometimes included	18	45.0
Not included	7	17.5

Table 30

Respondents' Access to Office Information

Response Category	Frequency (N = 40)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Yes, I have access	32	80.0
No, I do not have access	8	20.0

Table 31

Type of Treatment Respondents Received at Lunches with Males

Response Category	Frequency (N = 35)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Treated as one of the college's administrators	29	82.9
Singled out as a woman	6	17.1

Table 32

Number of Respondents Who Feel Paying the Cheque at Lunch is an Uncomfortable Situation

Response Category	Frequency (N = 35)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Respondents who feel it is uncomfortable	5	14.3
Respondents who do not feel it is uncomfortable	30	85.7

Sometimes, women themselves act as obstacles to their own career progress by being ignorant of the opportunities to learn useful information, such as those opportunities which present themselves at luncheons or other social gatherings.

The results presented in Table 33 would indicate that although very few of the respondents (7 women) feel excluded from social gatherings with their male colleagues, of those that are, 4 women or 57.2 percent would like to be included if not always, then at least sometimes.

Table 33

Respondents Who are Not Presently Included in Social Gatherings with Male Colleagues but Would Like to Be

Response Category	Frequency (N = 7)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Yes, I would like to be included	2	28.6
Yes, I would sometimes like to be included	2	28.6
No, I do not want to be included	3	42.8

Meetings and Conferences

It would appear from the results presented in Tables 34 and 35 that the majority of respondents feel that their ideas are utilized at meetings and conferences in their departments as well as in their colleges in general.

Table 34

Respondents' Ideas Utilized at Meetings and Conferences

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Ideas always utilized	6	14.6
Ideas used most of the time	29	70.7
Ideas utilized occasionally	6	14.6

Table 35

Respondents' Ideas Utilized in their Colleges in General

Response Category	Frequency (N = 39)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Ideas always utilized	3	7.7
Ideas utilized most of the time	25	64.1
Ideas utilized occasionally	10	25.6
Ideas never utilized	1	2.6

Job Satisfaction

The results presented in Table 36 would indicate that the largest number of respondents, 22 (or 53.6 percent) do not feel that their maximum capabilities are being utilized in their jobs.

Table 36

Respondents' Maximum Capabilities Utilized in Their Jobs

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Yes	19	46.3
No	1	2.4
No, and I want to do more	13	31.7
No, but I am satisfied	8	19.5

Overall Acceptance by Others of Women in Administration

Although, as the results in Table 37 indicate, the largest number of respondents, 19 (or 46.4 percent) do feel they are the brunt of sexist comments, not one respondent feels like a token woman (see Table 38). Also, very few respondents feel that they are resented by subordinates, co-workers or superiors (see Table 39).

The findings in Table 40 show that the majority of respondents, 75.6 percent (or 31) do not feel that as woman administrators they have an adverse effect on people they deal with outside their colleges.

Table 37

Respondents' Feelings About being Brunt of Sexist Comments

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Sometimes	19	46.4
Seldom	14	34.1
Never	8	19.5

Table 38

Respondents' Feelings about Being a Token Woman

Response Category	Frequency (N = 40)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
No, not a token woman	40	100.0

Table 39

Feelings of Resentment from Male and Female Subordinates, Co-workers and Superiors

Response Category	Feel Resentment From		Sometimes Feel Resentment From		Does not Feel Resentment From	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
Male subordinates *(N = 32)	1	3.1	3	9.4	28	87.5
Female subordinates *(N = 40)	4	10.0	6	15.0	30	75.0
Male co-workers *(N = 35)	-	--	2	5.7	33	94.3
Female co-workers *(N = 34)	2	5.9	4	11.8	28	82.4
Male superiors *(N = 40)	2	5.0	3	7.5	35	87.5
Female superiors *(N = 32)	1	3.1	2	6.3	29	90.6

*The above N's represent the number of respondents that have male and female subordinates, co-workers and superiors in the above categories.

Table 40

Respondents' Effects on People Outside their College

Response Category	Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Creates adverse effect	1	2.4
Sometimes creates adverse effect	9	22.0
Does not create adverse effect	31	75.6

Perceptions of the Organization

Kanter (1977) and Zellman (1976) have pointed out that women more so than men have difficulty gaining entry to management ranks within organizations. Those women who do succeed in being admitted to management then have the same difficulty advancing within the organization.

The women in this study were asked to describe their perceptions of certain aspects of their organizations in an effort to determine if any factors are perceived which enhance or inhibit the employment and advancement of women.

Perceptions of Factors that Enhance or Inhibit the Employment and Advancement of Women

The following paragraphs will present results from the frequency distributions and correlations on the respondents' perceptions of the following aspects of their organizations:

1. Training opportunities on the job
2. Management development opportunities
3. Informal off-the-record development opportunities
4. Pursuing careers, trying for promotion
5. Sponsor/protégée system
6. Males working for females
7. Male view of women wanting to get ahead
8. Equal opportunities for women
9. Women working for men
10. Overall job satisfaction

11. College's position on equal opportunity

12. Treatment of women.

Judging from the results presented in Table 41, most of the respondents feel that they are receiving fair and equal treatment with their male colleagues, particularly in the following areas:

1. special training opportunities, 80.5% (response categories 4 and 5 combined)

2. management development opportunities, 68.3% (response categories 1 and 2 combined)

3. informal off-the-record development opportunities, 61% (response categories 1 and 2 combined)

4. encouragement to try for promotions in non-traditional areas, 63.4% (response categories 4 and 5 combined)

5. their treatment in general, 83.2% (response categories 4 and 5 combined).

It is interesting that these areas represent a mix of areas that have been described by Schein (1977) as being part of both the formal and informal structure of organizations. The only area in which the largest number of respondents do not feel they are receiving fair and equal treatment with their male colleagues represents an area in the informal structure of the organization, i.e., 19 (or 46.3%) of the respondents feel that males prefer not to work for women. Also, while the largest number of respondents, 14 (or 34.2 percent) do not believe that the top male administration in their organizations would be leery of having a female protégée, only a slightly lower number of respondents, 13 (or 31.7 percent) are not sure.

Table 41

Respondents' Perceptions of their Organizations
(N = 41)

Concept	Degrees of Agreement: High 5		4		3		2		Low 1	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
1. This college is just as willing to give special training opportunities to women as to men	23	56.1	10	24.4	6	14.6	1	2.4	1	2.4
2. Women are not genuinely welcome in this organization's management development opportunities	2	4.9	7	17.1	4	9.8	6	14.6	22	53.7
3. Informal, off-the-record development opportunities are usually given to men here	1	2.4	10	24.4	5	12.2	8	19.5	17	41.5
4. Women here are encouraged to pursue careers, try for promotion and apply for what have been traditionally "male" jobs	12	29.3	14	34.1	5	12.2	6	14.6	3	7.3
5. Most top male administrators here would be leery of having a female protégée	6	14.6	7	17.1	13	31.7	9	22.0	5	12.2
6. Most males here would not want to work for a woman	6	14.6	13	31.7	9	22.0	8	19.5	2	4.9
7. Most of the men here would view women who wanted to get ahead as pushy	4	9.8	7	17.1	10	24.4	10	24.4	9	22.0
8. Most of the men are not genuinely in favor of equal opportunities for women	1	2.4	5	12.2	12	29.3	8	19.5	13	31.7
9. Most women here would prefer working for a man	4	9.8	7	17.1	13	31.7	9	22.0	5	12.2
10. This college is a leader in providing opportunities for women	4	9.8	6	14.6	12	29.3	12	29.3	4	9.8
11. Women are treated in a condescending way here	-	--	3	7.3	11	26.8	10	24.4	17	41.5
12. I am satisfied in general with the way I am treated here	18	43.9	12	29.3	7	17.1	2	4.9	2	4.9

Perceptions of Self

It has been pointed out by Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz and Vogel (1970) that perceptions of male and female characteristics on the part of individuals in our society are often stereotyped. Characteristics such as aggressiveness, independence, dominance, objectivity, competitiveness, analytical skills and level-headedness are more often ascribed to males than to females. Females are associated with characteristics in our culture that are considered negative and representing opposites of the male characteristics: submissiveness, dependence, lack of analytical skills, easily influenced, subjectivity and passiveness.

Zellman (1976) notes that the characteristics generally ascribed to the successful manager are those that are often described as male characteristics: competitiveness, aggressiveness, confidence and ability to deal with pressure. However, when a woman displays these so-called masculine characteristics she may be considered as cold and unfeminine. On the other hand, if a woman does not display these masculine characteristics she may be considered inadequate for a management job.

Statements in this section reflecting the above situation were directed toward the women in this study in an effort to determine how women administrators in colleges perceive themselves and whether through these self-perceptions the women themselves are legitimate obstacles to their career progress.

On a Likert scale from 1 to 5, they were asked whether or not they agreed with the statements—5 indicated high agreement,

1 indicated low agreement. These statements were divided into four sections: (1) I feel that on my job . . ., (2) I feel that in general . . ., (3) as a wife . . ., and (4) as a mother . . .

Perceptions of Self on the Job

Table 42 shows agreement, from high to low, on the statements included in the "I feel that on my job . . ." section, along with associated percentages.

Judging from the results presented in Table 42, the women in this study perceive themselves as having the characteristics generally ascribed to the management role:

1. persuasive—32 women or 85.2 percent (response categories 4 and 5 combined)
2. competent-- 39 women or 95.1 percent (response categories 4 and 5 combined)
3. aggressive—22 women or 55 percent (response categories 4 and 5 combined)
4. like a great deal of pressure—18 women or 43.9 percent (response categories 1 and 2 combined)
5. confident—32 women or 78 percent (response categories 1 and 2 combined)
6. competitive—24 women or 58.6 percent (response categories 1 and 2 combined).

It is interesting to note that the largest number of women in this study, 18 (or 43.9 percent) perceive themselves as being right in the middle of the scale (response category 3) on a measure of the statement "I am an emotional person." Being highly emotional,

Table 42

Respondents' Self-Perceptions:- On the Job
(N = 41)

Concept	Degrees of Agreement: High 5		4		3		2		Low 1	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
1. I am a persuasive person	15	36.6	17	41.5	5	12.2	--	--	1	2.4
2. I have low motivation	3	7.3	4	9.8	4	9.8	5	12.2	25	61.0
3. I am competent	20	48.8	19	46.3	2	4.9	--	--	--	--
4. I am an aggressive person	7	17.1	15	36.6	11	26.8	5	12.2	2	4.9
5. I do not like a great deal of pressure	2	4.9	8	19.5	13	31.7	12	29.3	6	14.6
6. I am an emotional person	4	9.8	6	14.6	18	43.9	11	26.8	2	4.9
7. I find a high source of self-esteem within myself	15	36.6	16	39.0	8	19.5	2	4.9	--	--
8. I am successful	16	39.0	18	43.9	6	14.6	--	--	1	2.4
9. I do not feel confident of my abilities	1	2.4	3	7.3	5	12.2	6	14.6	26	63.4
10. I have a good sense of humor	21	51.2	14	34.1	6	14.6	--	--	--	--
11. I want to stay right where I am in this college. I do not want a promotion	5	12.2	7	17.1	12	29.3	2	4.9	14	34.1
12. I am not a competitive person	4	9.8	4	9.8	9	22.0	12	29.3	12	29.3
13. Being single is an asset	3	7.3	6	14.6	5	12.2	3	17.3	19	46.3
14. I am not really achievement oriented	1	2.4	--	--	3	7.3	8	19.5	29	70.0

a characteristic usually ascribed to women, is also not a characteristic generally ascribed to the managerial role. One could assume from the respondents' uncertainty on this item that they perceive themselves to be more emotional than they allow themselves to display on the job.

It would also appear from the results presented in Table 42, that the respondents are not themselves, through their self-perceptions on achievement motivation, desire for promotion, self-esteem and self-confidence, legitimate obstacles to their career progress. The largest number of respondents, 37 women (or 90.2 percent) report that they are achievement oriented; 16 women (or 40 percent) report that they desire promotion; 31 women (or 75.6 percent) report they have a high source of self esteem; and 32 women (or 78 percent) report that they are confident of their abilities.

Perceptions of Self in General

Henning and Jardim (1977) reported in their study of twenty-five successful women executives that these women felt they had to forego their femininity in order to advance on the job. According to the results presented in Table 43, only one of the women administrators in this study (2.4 percent) feels that she has to forego her femininity in order to advance in her job. The majority of respondents, 27 women (or 65.9 percent with response categories 4 and 5 combined) perceive themselves as feminine persons.

It is interesting to note that while the largest number of respondents, 20 (or 48.8 percent with response categories 1 and 2

Table 43

Respondents' Perceptions of Self in General

Concept	Degrees of Agreement: High 5 — Frequency Absolute	High 5 — Relative (%)	4 — Frequency Absolute	4 — Relative (%)	3 — Frequency Absolute	3 — Relative (%)	2 — Frequency Absolute	2 — Relative (%)	Low 1 — Frequency Absolute	Low 1 — Relative (%)
1. I am a dependent person	4	9.8	--	--	8	19.5	15	36.6	13	31.7
2. I am a feminine person	17	41.5	10	24.4	10	24.4	3	7.3	1	2.4
3. I feel I must forego my femininity to advance in my job	1	2.4	--	--	5	12.2	10	24.4	25	61.0
4. I feel I do not have a good background for my job	2	4.9	2	4.9	4	5.8	9	22.0	23	56.1
5. I feel resentment from my non-working female friends	2	4.9	5	12.2	2	4.9	4	9.8	27	65.9
6. Most of my close friends are career women	11	26.8	12	29.3	10	24.4	3	7.3	5	12.2
7. As a child, I was considered a tomboy	7	17.1	7	17.1	7	17.1	4	9.8	16	39.0
8. As a child, I closely identified with the role of my mother	5	12.2	3	7.3	15	36.6	5	12.2	12	29.3
9. As a child, I closely identified with the role of my father	3	7.3	6	14.6	17	41.5	3	7.3	12	29.3
10. I feel that being sexually available is an asset for a woman to get ahead	--	--	--	--	1	2.4	4	9.8	36	87.8
11. My parents were more interested in my marrying than my having a career	1	2.4	3	7.3	10	24.4	2	4.9	24	58.5

combined) did not perceive themselves to be tomboys as children, the remaining number of respondents are evenly spread in their degrees of agreement over the high and middle parts of the scale (response categories 5, 4 and 3). Also, when the respondents were asked if, as children, they more closely identified with the role of their fathers, the largest number of respondents, 17 women (or 41.5 percent) remained neutral (response category 3 on the scale) on this item.

Henning and Jardim have noted that most of the 25 women executives in their study considered themselves to be tomboys as children—that is, they played sports or games with boys more than girls and disdained the wearing of feminine apparel such as frilly dresses. These women had close relationships with their fathers who encouraged their engagement in such activities. When the women in this study were asked if their parents were more interested in their marrying than having a career, the largest number of women, 26 (or 63.4 percent) said their parents were not more interested in their marrying than having a career.

Henning and Jardim point out that many women may lack an interest in administrative or managerial positions because they have never experienced, learned, then internalized as men do, the skills that apply to such positions through playing sports. Boys, for example, learn the value of teamwork persistence and the ability to deal with criticism openly through playing sports such as football. These skills are developed by boys in an outdoor classroom from which girls are generally barred.

However, it could be assumed that girls who were tomboys as children, as were the majority of women in Henning and Jardim's study had more opportunity than other girls to learn these skills and are more readily able to recognize their usefulness and importance to management job performance.

Perceptions of Self as a Wife

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that career women who are also married are sometimes faced with conflicts between their roles as wives or mothers and their roles as career women. It was pointed out that a woman's husband, through his willingness to share household or child care tasks and his overall support of his wife's career can do much toward helping her overcome or avoid role conflicts. According to the results presented in Tables 22 and 23, most of the women in this study feel that they have their husbands' overall support of their careers and help with household tasks.

However, it would appear from the results presented in Table 44 that the largest number of respondents, 14 (or 45.2 percent, response categories 4 and 5 combined) do experience role conflict between their roles as wives and career women—in spite of their husbands' support and encouragement of their careers. This may suggest that the source of conflicts is not only in a woman's reaction to a situation which, as Bardwick (1971) points out, is socially constructed, but, also, from an internalized set of conflicting values resulting from the socialization process. Epstein (1973) points out that people are taught to think, act and feel through the socialization process in ways that are thought to

Table 44

Respondents' Self-Perceptions: As Wives
(N = 31)

Concept	Degrees of Agreement: High 5		4		3		2		Low 1	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
1. I feel I am a successful wife	17	54.8	7	22.6	5	16.1	1	3.2	1	3.2
2. My husband's career comes first	5	16.1	3	9.7	11	35.5	4	12.9	8	25.8
3. I would not accept a promotion if I then had a higher position than my husband did	--	--	--	--	3	9.7	2	6.5	26	83.9
4. I would not accept a promotion if I then made more money than my husband did	--	--	--	--	2	6.5	2	6.5	27	87.1
5. I experience the demands of role conflict between wife and career woman	8	25.8	6	19.4	7	22.6	2	6.5	8	25.8
6. My career enhances my role at home as a wife	8	25.8	6	19.4	7	22.6	6	19.4	4	12.9
7. I feel I am successful if I am a good wife and do a so-so job at work	--	--	2	6.5	2	6.5	3	9.7	24	77.4
8. I feel I am successful if I do a good job at work and do a so-so job as wife	--	--	--	--	1	3.2	5	16.1	25	80.6
9. I would accept a position if it meant moving	11	29.9	7	18.4	7	18.4	5	13.2	8	21.1
10. I am happier because of my career	23	60.5	9	23.7	4	10.5	--	--	2	5.3

be appropriate to a person with a certain label—male or female. Stereotypic notions held in our society about male and female roles are such that women who try to combine marriage or motherhood with careers experience conflict between the two roles. This may be why, in an attempt to minimize possible conflicts as Wladis Hoffman (1975) notes, working versus nonworking mothers have fewer children, older children and husbands who are more active in household tasks. As we have seen from the results presented in Tables 22, 23 and 26, the women in this study fit this description.

While the largest number of respondents, 24 (or 45.2 percent, response categories 4 and 5 combined) feel they are successful wives, they do not feel successful as women if being a good wife is achieved at the price of neglecting their jobs. The largest number of respondents, 27 (or 87.1 percent, response categories 1 and 2 combined) report that they do not feel successful if they are good wives and do a so-so job at work. The largest number of respondents, 30 (or 96.7 percent, response categories 1 and 2 combined) also do not feel successful if they do a good job at work and so-so job as wives.

From the results presented in Table 44, it appears that the respondents' careers are important to them with the largest number of respondents, 32 (or 84.2 percent, response categories 4 and 5 combined) reporting that they are happier because of their careers. Also, in spite of the role conflicts they experience, the largest number of women, 14 (or 45.2 percent, response categories 4 and 5 combined) report that their careers enhance their roles at home as wives.

It would appear that the women in this study are not themselves legitimate obstacles to their career progress in terms of their self-perceptions of (1) their willingness to move to accept better jobs, (2) their willingness to accept a promotion, if it meant having higher positions than their husbands, and (3) their willingness to accept a promotion if it meant earning more money than their husbands. The largest number of respondents, 18 (or 48.3 percent, response categories 4 and 5 combined) would move to accept better jobs; the largest number of respondents, 28 (or 90.4 percent, response categories 1 and 2 combined) would accept a promotion if it meant making more money than their husbands; the largest number of respondents, 29 (or 93.6 percent, response categories 1 and 2 combined) would accept a promotion if it meant having higher positions than their husbands. Very few respondents, 8 (or 25.8 percent, response categories 4 and 5 combined) place their husbands' careers before their own.

Perceptions of Self as Mother

It is interesting that, according to the results presented in Table 45, of the number of respondents who have children, the largest number of respondents, 9 (or 42.9 percent) are in the middle of the scale in terms of their response to the statement "I experience the demands of role conflict between mother and career woman." This neutrality may be due to the fact that only three of the respondents have children in the youngest age category (0 to 5 years) presented in Table 26. The remaining respondents have children who are at least of school age (6 to 18 years) or who are all grown (over

Table 45

Respondents' Self-Perceptions: As Mothers
(N = 21)

Concept	Degrees of Agreement: High 5		4		3		2		Low 1	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency	
	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)	Absolute	Relative (%)
1. I feel I am a successful mother	8	38.1	9	42.9	4	19.0	2	9.5	--	--
2. I experience the demands of role conflict between mother and career woman	5	23.8	3	14.3	9	42.9	2	9.5	2	9.5
3. My career enhances my role at home as a mother	7	33.3	7	33.3	3	14.3	2	9.5	2	9.5
4. I feel I am successful if I am a good mother and do a so-so job at work	--	--	1	4.8	1	4.8	--	--	17	81.0
5. I feel I am successful if I do a good job at work and do a so-so job as mother	--	--	--	--	--	--	1	4.8	18	85.7

18 years). One could assume that older children represent less anxiety and energy drain for the career woman than do younger children, thereby minimizing the possibility of role conflict between the role of mother and career woman.

None of the respondents report feeling successful if they do a good job at work and a so-so job as mothers. Only one respondent reports feeling successful if she is a good mother and does a so-so job at work. However, it is interesting to note that when a correlation was computed between the respondents' feelings of success as mothers and their hierarchical position level with their organizations, the Pearson r = .3746 at a significance level of .009. Thus, as the number of hierarchical positions between the respondents and their chief executive officers (the presidents) increased, the more the respondents felt successful as mothers. This finding suggests that the less responsibility a woman has in her job (i.e., the lower her hierarchical position in a college), the less demanding her job responsibilities and the more time she can devote to being a mother. Hence, her increased feelings of success as a mother.

Correlations

Each of the data items from Table 41 (perceptions of the organization) was correlated with each of the data items from Tables 42 (perceptions of self on the job) and 43 (perceptions of self in general). Only data items from Tables 42 and 43 that correlated significantly at .05 or better with at least one data item from Table 41 are presented in Table 46.

Table 46

Factors that Enhance or Inhibit the Employment and Advancement of Women

Respondents' Perception of the Organization	Self-Perceptions of Respondents											
	Persuasive	Low motivation	Competence	Self-esteem	Not confident of abilities	Not competitive	Single an asset	Not achievement oriented	Dependent	Feminine	Forego femininity	Being sexually available an asset
Training opportunities for men and women	NS[a]	NS	NS	.3812[b] .007 [c] [d]	NS	NS	NS	-.3731 .008	NS	.2698 .044	-.3144 .023	-.5893 .001
Women not welcome in organization's management development opportunities	NS	.2954 .030	-.4045 .004	-.3645 .010	.2809 .038	.2639 .048	NS	.3364 .016	.3418 .015 40	-.3562 .011	.2677 .045	.4732 .001
Informal development opportunities given to men	NS	NS	-.2851 .035	-.3890 .006	NS	NS	NS	.3469 .013	NS	-.4285 .003	NS	.3811 .007
Women encouraged to move ahead/try for promotions	NS	NS	NS	.3563 .012 40	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	-.3260 .020 40
Top male administrators leery of female protégées	NS	NS	NS	-.3541 .012 40	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	.3464 .014 40	NS
Men see women who want to get ahead as pushy	.3386 .020 37	NS	NS	-.3129 .025 40	NS	.2619 .051 40	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Men not in favor of equal opportunities for women	NS	NS	NS	-.2737 .046 39	NS	NS	.3438 .023 34	.3875 .007 39	NS	-.4889 .001 39	.3441 .016 39	.3791 .009 39
Women prefer working for male bosses	NS	NS	NS	-.3594 .013 38	NS	NS	.3998 .010 34	NS	NS	-.2784 .045 38	NS	NS
College is leader in providing equal opportunities	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	-.3832 .009 38	NS
Women treated in condescending way	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	.3555 .011

[a] NS = Not significant

[b] r coefficients

[c] significance levels

[d] Unless otherwise indicated, N = 41.

Perceptions of Factors that Enhance or Inhibit the Employment and Advancement of Women

Kanter (1977) notes that males in management are often reluctant to act as sponsors to women, i.e., help them up the promotional ladder, as they have traditionally helped their male protégés. This is because women do not share the homogeneity of male backgrounds and culture, and, consequently, are not perceived as trustworthy enough to be drawn closer to the inner circle of decision making in an organization.

One can assume that a woman's career progress may be inhibited by this situation, as she is barred from the possibility of aligning herself with a powerful sponsor who can help increase her share of the organization's resources. She may feel that she has to forego her femininity in order to increase her chances of being selected as a protégée. If one follows Kanter's reasoning, the findings presented in Table 46 would tend to support these assumptions. The more that top male administrators are leery of having a female protégée, the more the respondents feel they must forego their femininity in order to advance on the job. The more that women prefer working for a man (1) the more the respondents feel that being single is an asset, and (2) the less feminine the respondents feel.

It is interesting to note that respondents' self-perceptions of being sexually available as an asset in getting ahead correlate significantly with five out of the seven items relating to the respondents' perceptions of their organizations. The above findings would suggest that a woman's self-perceptions in terms of feelings of

femininity, foregoing her femininity on the job and being sexually available as an asset in getting ahead are largely proportionate to the degree of opportunity for personal job growth and advancement that she perceives within her organization. Henning and Jardim (1977) have pointed out that the majority of the twenty-five women executives they interviewed in their study felt it was necessary for them to remain single and to forego their femininity, until they were firmly established in the upper echelons of their organizations.

If the assumption is made that respondents' self-perceptions of their femininity affect their perceptions of their organizations, this would contradict Kanter's and Henning and Jardim's findings. It would suggest that a woman's perceptions of self in terms of her femininity affect her perceptions of the degree of personal growth and advancement opportunities for her within her organization. This does not seem as logical a line of reasoning to pursue, given that it is precisely the woman who is perceived by others as cold and unfeminine, who is also perceived as having the characteristics generally ascribed to the management role (Prather, 1971; Zellman, 1976).

Kanter (1977) has pointed out that low opportunity directly affects one's achievement ambitions, for the less the opportunity in an organization, the less the employees appear to desire learning and advancement. She found in her study of a large business corporation that there existed a differentiated structure of opportunity within it which defined the ways people perceived themselves and their jobs.

One could assume from this that an employee's self-perceptions in terms, for example, of self-esteem, achievement orientation, motivation level, confidence and competence levels on the job are largely proportionate to the degree of opportunity for personal job growth and advancement that they perceive within their work organizations.

The findings presented in Table 46 would appear to support this assumption. It is interesting to note, for example, that the respondents' perceptions of self-esteem correlate significantly with every item relating to the respondents' perceptions of their organizations. Also, the respondents' perceptions of achievement orientation correlate significantly with (1) equality of training opportunities, (2) women's degree of welcome in their organization's management development opportunities, (3) equal access to informal development opportunities, and (4) men's feelings about giving equal opportunities to women. Thus as equality of training opportunities in a college increases, the less the respondents feel they are not achievement oriented. The more that women are not welcome in a college's management development program, the more they feel non-achievement oriented. The more that informal off-the-record development opportunities are given to men, the more the respondents feel non-achievement oriented. The more that men are not in favor of equal opportunities for women, the more the respondents feel non-achievement oriented.

However, as Henning and Jardim (1977) point out, women bring with them to their jobs a heritage of beliefs and assumptions through the socialization process that are different from those of their male

counterparts and often filled with ambiguities. If a woman has a low perception of self-esteem, self-confidence or lacks achievement orientation, one could assume that this will affect her perceptions of the availability of opportunities for her within an organization.

It is difficult in situations such as these to assess which comes first: low self-esteem affecting perceptions of the organization or low opportunity within the organization affecting levels of self-esteem. However, without further study and investigation, these questions cannot be answered with any degree of certainty.

Summary

A brief summary is presented in the following paragraphs of the general profile of the 41 women in administrative positions in the six Alberta Community Colleges who participated in this study, their job situations, their self-perceptions and their perceptions of their organizations. Detailed conclusions arising from these findings are presented in Chapter 5.

General Profile

Age. The modal age bracket of the respondents was 26 to 31 years of age.

Education. More than half of the respondents (70 percent) have completed university degrees with 70 percent holding Bachelor's degrees, 41 percent holding Master's degrees and 7 percent holding Doctorates.

Salary. The modal salary bracket of the respondents was $20,000 to $29,999. Most of the women in this study do not appear to have had problems receiving equal pay for equal work. The majority of respondents (89.5 percent) believed that their salaries were comparable with men's salaries for the same jobs in their colleges. Only 20 percent of the respondents indicated that to their knowledge they were paid less than men for the same work within the past five years.

Job titles and work areas. While all 41 of the respondents were administrators, their job titles and work areas varied considerably. The majority of respondents worked in functional areas that were generally regarded as support services, i.e., Personnel, Food Services, Library Services, Student Services or functional areas traditionally dominated by women, i.e., Secretarial Science, Early Childhood Education, Nursing and General Office.

Position distance from the President. The modal position distance category from the President has two positions between the respondents and their Presidents.

Length of employ. The modal length of employ of the respondents was the over 1 year to 5 year category.

Promotions. Over half of the respondents (58.3 percent) were promoted to their present positions. Of those who were promoted, 61.9 percent held entry level positions as either part-time or

full-time instructors.

Only four respondents have turned down a promotion within the past five years. Also very few respondents, 2 (or 4.9 percent) reported that they have ever lost a promotion to a man when they were equally qualified for a job. Only one respondent reported being passed up for a promotion because it meant travelling alone and only two respondents reported being passed up, because it meant travelling with men.

Plans to become administrator. The largest number of respondents, 28 (or 68.3 percent) began their educational administration career plans while working.

Father's occupation. Very few of the respondents (28.6 percent) had fathers whose principal occupation was professional with managerial responsibilities.

Person who most influenced respondent's career choice. Only three women cited their fathers as the persons who most experienced their career choice. The largest number (10) cited themselves as the person who most influenced their career choice.

Position in the family. While more than half the women in this study (53.7 percent) are not the only child or eldest child in their families, the numbers are almost evenly divided, 46.3 percent in the oldest or only child category.

Marital situation. The majority of respondents (80 percent) are now or have been married. It would appear that most of the women in this study (64.3 percent) have husbands who are proud of their wives' careers. Further, 71.9 percent of the respondents said that their husbands have been assets to their career in two major areas: (1) through their moral support and encouragement (71.9 percent), and (2) through their help with household tasks (71.9 percent).

The major area which the respondents felt is or could be a problem in their marriages was the wife being asked to transfer (is a problem, 15.6 percent) and (could be a problem, 43.8 percent).

Children. Only women who are married or were married have children. Of the 32 women in these categories, 19 have children. The highest number of children are in the older age categories with 9 respondents having children in the 13 to 18 years of age category, and 9 respondents having children in the over 18 years of age category.

Household and child care help. Over half the respondents (51.7 percent) use some type of household or child care help.

Job Situations Peculiar to Women

The majority of respondents did not appear generally to be having problems particularly in the following situations:

1. being included in luncheons or other social gatherings by their male colleagues

2. being accepted at luncheons as "one of the administrative group" rather than being singled out as a woman by males and treated accordingly
3. ease with which women can pay the cheque at luncheons
4. having access to "office information"
5. having their ideas utilized in department meetings and conferences
6. having their ideas utilized in their college in general
7. their effect on people outside the college
8. their acceptance by others (both male and female subordinates, colleagues and superiors) within the college.

Although 46.4 percent of the respondents do feel they are the brunt of sexist comments, not one respondent felt like a token woman. However, over half the respondents 53.6 percent (or 22 women) did feel that their maximum capabilities were not being utilized in their jobs.

Self-Perceptions

The women in this study were given statements about their self-perceptions "on the job," "in general" and "as a wife and/or mother." More than half of the women in this study perceived themselves on the job as having the characteristics generally ascribed to the management role:

1. persuasive (85.2 percent)
2. competitive (95.1 percent)
3. aggressive (55 percent)
4. like a great deal of pressure (43.9 percent)

5. confident (78 percent)

6. competitive (58.6 percent)

It would also appear that the respondents are not themselves, through their self perceptions of their (1) achievement motivation, (2) desire for promotion, (3) level of self-esteem, and (4) level of self confidence, legitimate obstacles to their career progress in colleges. The highest percentage of respondents reported:

1. achievement orientation (90.2 percent)

2. desire for promotion (40 percent)

3. a high source of self-esteem (75.6 percent)

4. confidence in their abilities (78 percent).

However, the largest number of women in this study, 18 (or 43.9 percent) perceived themselves as being right in the middle of the scale (response category 3) on a measure of the statement "I am an emotional person."

Only one of the women administrators in this study felt that she had to forego her femininity in order to advance on the job. The majority of respondents (65.9 percent) perceived themselves as feminine persons.

Not quite half the respondents (48.8 percent) perceived themselves to be tomboys as children, with the remaining number of respondents evenly spread in the degrees of agreement over the high and middle parts of the scale (response categories 5, 4 and 3). Also, when the respondents were asked if they more closely identified with the role of their fathers, the largest percentage of women (41.5 percent) responding took a neutral stand between high and low

agreement. The respondents reported that their parents (63.4 percent) did not take more interest in their marrying than in their having a career.

As wives and mothers, the majority of respondents considered themselves as successful in both these areas. Their careers and their home lives seem to be equally important to them in that they do not feel they are "successful" wives or mothers at the price of neglecting their work.

However, a number of respondents do experience role conflicts between their roles as wives and/or mothers and career women—in spite of their husbands' support and encouragement. But, in spite of the role conflicts they experience, the respondents reported that their careers enhance their roles at home as wife and mother.

It would appear that the women in this study are not themselves legitimate obstacles to their career progress in terms of their self-perceptions of (1) their willingness to move to accept better jobs, and (2) their willingness to accept a promotion if it meant having a higher position or making more money than their husbands did.

Perceptions of the Organization

Although the majority of women did not appear, generally, to be having serious problems, significant correlations were found between the respondents' self-perceptions and the degree of advancement or personal growth opportunities in their organizations. For example, as equality of training opportunities in a college increased so did (1) the respondents' self-esteem, and (2) the less the respondents

felt achievement oriented. The more that women were not welcome in a college's management development program the lower the respondents' motivation levels, confidence levels, feelings of competence and self-esteem.

However, the more that women were encouraged to pursue careers, try for promotions and apply for what have been traditionally male jobs, (1) the higher the respondents' self-esteem, and (2) the less the respondents felt that being sexually available is an asset in getting ahead.

There was some question as to whether the respondents' self-perceptions were largely proportionate to the degree of advancement opportunities they perceived for themselves as women within their organizations or whether self-perceptions affected perceptions of the organization.

In the areas of perceptions relating to feelings of femininity, the foregoing of femininity and being sexually available as an asset in getting ahead on the job, it was assumed that self-perceptions were largely proportionate to the degree of advancement opportunities perceived by the respondents in their organizations.

In the areas of perceptions relating to levels of self-esteem, confidence and achievement orientation, it could not be determined with any degree of certainty whether respondents' self-perceptions affected respondents' perceptions of their organizations or vice versa.

Chapter V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter of the study entitled "Women Administrators in Alberta Community Colleges" presents: (1) a summary of the investigation, (2) the conclusions reached, (3) implications for further studies, and (4) recommendations for further study.

Summary

This study proposed: (1) to examine the women in administrative positions in six Alberta community colleges to ascertain the kind of woman who aspires to and attains a career in educational administration and (2) to determine how these women perceive themselves, their jobs and their organizations. The six community colleges were: Grant MacEwan Community College, Medicine Hat College, Mount Royal College, Lethbridge Community College, Red Deer College and Grande Prairie Regional College.

To obtain the data for the above, the following questions were asked:

1. What is the general profile of women in educational administration positions today, specifically in the six Alberta community colleges listed above?

2. Do women administrators perceive any factors within their respective organizations which enhance or inhibit the career advancement of women administrators?

3. If these women administrators did perceive enhancing or inhibiting factors as described in (2), what are these factors?

4. How are women administrators' careers affected by their perceptions of these factors?

5. How do women administrators perceive themselves: (a) on the job, (b) in general, (c) as wives, and (d) as mothers?

6. Are women administrators themselves obstacles to their career progression in community colleges?

The Need for the Study

As pointed out in Chapter I of this study, very few women hold positions in management ranks. The general absence of women from managerial and administrative ranks represents under utilization of women's abilities. McLure and McLure (1974) note that "in this period of struggle for women's rights, women are needed in decision-making positions in direct proportion to their numbers in the population as a whole" (p. 6).

Why, then, are not more women holding positions in the occupational area of management and administration? A review of the literature addressing this question indicated that the socialization process is the source of stereotypic attitudes which hinder women's career paths to management. Through this process, boys and girls learn role performances and acquire personality structures, attitudes and behaviors that are considered appropriate for each sex. From a very early age girls and boys receive different messages about what to like and dislike, cherish or disdain and what are acceptable occupational and family social patterns.

Boys learn at a very early age that they are expected to work to support at least themselves (Epstein, 1973; Henning & Jardim, 1977; Richardson-Walum, 1977). One of the messages little girls get about their future is that it probably has a husband in it: at that point her parents are the only role models she has. "Fathers support wives and children and even when a mother works, the father's job is usually seen as the more critical" (Henning & Jardim, 1977, p. 16).

Epstein (1973) notes that the distinctive problems of women come from the confusion of sex roles with occupation roles, so that women are likely to be culturally assigned work functions which reflect an extension of their sex role. Also, because women learn from the culture, a set of expectations about themselves that become a crucial part of their self-image, they themselves tend to aspire only to socially sanctioned work functions.

The occupational segregation by sex of the Canadian labour force has led to the practice of referring to certain occupations as "traditionally male" or "traditionally female" (The Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women, 1970). Management, one of the occupations dominated by men, has not been a socially sanctioned work function for women.

A woman with abilities who does become interested in a management career and completes the education required for it, will likely face difficulties in staying on such a career path. This is because formal and informal boundaries exist not only at the entry level to management, but also exist within the structure of organizations and tend to inhibit the advancement of women. Masculine

characteristics, for example, are often ascribed to the management role. Women who display them, however, may be seen as unfeminine. A woman who does not display these so-called masculine characteristics may be considered inadequate for the job. Thus, having the right paper qualifications for a management job is often not enough for a woman for she will be meeting only the more formal requirements for the job.

Other boundaries may be informal and come from the people who are already in management. Since, as the statistics quoted in Chapter I indicate, it is likely that management groups will be composed primarily of males, women will be in a minority position because of their sex. Kanter (1977) has noted that this will have implications for their patterns of interaction with the organization. Women in such positions become tokens or symbols for all women and must deal with pressures and stresses that the dominants in the group do not experience.

Kanter points out that dominants will attempt to keep a female member on the periphery of decision making in a group, thereby reducing her power. Dominants may, for example, exaggerate the differences in male and female behaviors by indulging in more behaviors that are considered "masculine," such as backslapping, recounting off-color jokes, and evaluating women as prospective romantic partners. This exaggeration of differences is a means of showing the new woman member that she does not belong in the group. It is an attempt to protect the group's collectivity from an obvious outsider (in this case a woman).

As women begin to enter non-traditional career fields such as management, a number of research studies centering on women managers in business organizations have been conducted in an effort to determine who these women are, how they tend to think, what kinds of work areas and habits they have, what is important to them in their day-to-day working lives and whether as women in a non-traditional occupation, they experience differentiated opportunities within their organizations compared to their male counterparts (Bass, Krusell & Alexander, 1971; Crawford, 1977; Henning & Jardim, 1977; Kanter, 1977; Van der Merwe, 1978; Zellman, 1976).

Only one study was found on the Canadian woman educational administrator (the counterpart of the "manager" in educational organizations) employed in a post-secondary educational institution other than a university (Women and the Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology, 1975). This relative lack of information in the literature concerning women administrators in community colleges led the researcher to ask: Do female educational administrators differ from their counterparts in business organizations generally, in terms of their backgrounds, perceptions of self, their jobs and their organizations? This study was conducted in order to obtain data relative to this question.

The Population

The subjects in this study were the total number of women classified by six Alberta community colleges as administrators as they were considered to form a total population of a particular type.

The Collection of Data

Letters were sent to the chief executive officers of each of the six colleges requesting that they provide the researcher with a list of all the women in their organizations who were classified as administrators. Upon receipt of these lists, a letter was sent to each woman on these lists, requesting their participation in the study. In order to help increase the chance of a higher percentage of returns, the researcher arranged to pick up the questionnaires that were mailed to each participant.

The Returns

All 43 of the questionnaires that had been mailed out were returned. Subsequent analysis of the returns determined that two of the respondents were ineligible as participants based on the criteria for an administrator as set out in Chapter I of this study. One the basis of the return rate of questionnaires (i.e., 43 out of 43), the return rate was 100 percent. However, given that the actual population includes two additional women (one who declined to participate and the other who was on leave of absence), it is more accurate to record the return rate as 41 out of 43 (or 95.3 percent).

The Questionnaire

The data for this study were collected through the use of a seven-page questionnaire designed by Crawford (1977) and adapted by the researcher for use in this study. The questionnaire, as adapted from Crawford's instrument, consisted of four main parts: (1) General Background, (2) Job Situations Peculiar to Women, (3) Self-Perceptions,

and (4) Perceptions of the Organization.

Sections (1), (2) and (3) of the questionnaire remained virtually unchanged from Crawford's original questionnaire, with the exception of word substitutions, the deletion of an item and the addition of an item. Section (2) of Crawford's original instrument was omitted as it was not related to the purposes of this study.

Crawford generated the items for categories (1), (2) and (3) above through a review of the literature and discussions with women in management and with persons in the educational field. The items for category (4) above were designed by the researcher and generated for this study through a review of the literature and discussions with women administrators and researchers in the educational field.

In section 1 of the questionnaire, "General Background," the respondents provided (a) personal and job information, (b) family background, (c) marital background, (d) husband's status, (e) children, and (f) household and child care help. However, due to a weakness in the design of the items pertaining to husband's status the data collected on these items had little or no value for the study. It could not be ascertained with any degree of certainty whether the respondents who were but are not now married provided information on these items based on the time they were married. Hence the data could not be compared as was originally planned with data on the items requesting respondents' present job titles, incomes and educational level.

In section 2 of the questionnaire, "Job Situations Peculiar

to Women," the respondents provided information on situations peculiar to women. In section 3 of the questionnaire, "Self-Perceptions," the respondents provided information on how they feel about themselves (a) on the job, (b) in general, (c) as wives, and (d) as mothers. Section 4 of the questionnaire provided information on the respondents' perceptions of their organizations.

Statistical Procedures

Frequency distributions with percentages as well as Pearson correlations were used to report the data from the questionnaires.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the findings of the study and are divided according to the six questions used to gather the data.

General Profile of Women Administrators in Six Alberta Community Colleges

1. Since the majority of women in this study have completed university undergraduate degrees prior to being promoted to their present administrative positions, it would appear that a university degree tends to be a pre-requisite for attaining administrative positions in colleges.

2. The wide variety of degree specializations at the Bachelor's level tends to support the assumption that in educational post-secondary non-university institutions most women in administrative positions are promoted from instructional ranks, hence the variety of undergraduate degree specializations.

3. The assumption in (2) is further supported by the number of respondents promoted to their present positions from part-time or full-time teaching positions within their colleges. Of the respondents (58.3 percent) who were promoted to their present positions, the majority (61.9 percent) cited part-time or full-time instructor positions as the type of position they last held before being promoted.

4. Although all 41 of the respondents presently hold administrative positions within their respective colleges, only 6 women (or 20 percent) work in functional areas defined as relatively non-traditional, i.e., Continuing Education, Educational Development and Merchandising (the term non-traditional is defined here to include functional areas not traditionally dominated by women as have been, for example, Nursing, Library Services and Secretarial Science). It would appear, then, that women in educational administration in this study tend to be concentrated in functional areas traditionally dominated by women.

5. As the number of hierarchical reporting positions between the respondents and the presidents increased, the respondents' ages decreased. Thus, the older a woman administrator is, the higher her hierarchical position within a college. This may be due to the tendency, as pointed out by Henning and Jardim (1977), on the part of women to make their career plans later in life, as opposed to men who typically build the foundations of their careers much earlier than women.

6. The assumption in (5) is further supported by the number

of respondents who began their plans for a career in educational administration while working. The largest number of respondents, 28 (or 68.3 percent), said that their plans began while working and the next largest number, 6 (or 14.6 percent), indicated that they had never really planned to be educational administrators. They just let their careers happen.

7. There is no significant correlation between the length of the respondents' employ in their respective colleges and their ages.

8. Most of the respondents are not having problems receiving equal pay for equal work. The majority believe their salaries are comparable with men's salaries for the same jobs in their college and only 20 percent indicate that to their knowledge they were paid less than men for the same work within the past five years.

9. The largest number of women in this study, 16, had fathers in the skilled occupation category. Very few women cited their fathers as being the person who most influenced their career choice. Henning and Jardim (1977) claim that women who advance in management usually have fathers in this occupational area and were greatly influenced by his example. The findings in this study do not support this claim.

10. Epstein (1973) and Henning and Jardim (1977) claim that the successful female manager tends to be an eldest or only child in her family. The findings in this study do not support this claim even though the number of women in the only or eldest child category is only slightly lower than half the total number of respondents (46.3 percent vs. 53.7 percent).

11. The majority of women in this study are married. Of the 60 percent who are married, 45.2 percent experience role conflicts between their roles as wife and career woman in spite of the fact that the majority say their husbands support and encourage them in their careers. Darley (1976) suggests that a husband's support of his wife's career might help minimize the conflicts she may experience between her role as a wife and a career woman. The findings in this study do not support Darley's suggestion. However, they do tend to support Bardwick's (1971) suggestion that the source of role conflicts comes not only from a woman's reaction to a social constructed conflict situation, but, also, from an internalized set of conflicting values resulting from the socialization process.

12. Although very few of the 31 married respondents (8) say that their husband's careers come first, the majority of women cite being asked to transfer most often as a present and possible job related problem in their marriages.

13. Only women who are now or have been married have children. The highest number of children are in the older age categories. Of the 21 respondents who have children, 9 have children in the 13 to 18 years of age category and 9 respondents have children in the over 18 years category. Only three respondents have children in the 0 to 5 years category. Epstein (1973) notes that stereotypic notions held in society about male and female roles are such that women who try to combine marriage and motherhood with careers experience conflicts between the two roles. In an attempt to minimize possible conflicts, working mothers tend to have fewer children, older children and

husbands who are more active in household tasks (Wladis Hoffman, 1975). The findings in this study tend to support this description of the working mother. An earlier conclusion which stated that the majority of women have husbands who help with household or child care tasks further supports the above description of the working mother.

14. Although the majority of respondents say that their husbands are active in household and child care tasks, the majority (51.7 percent) still utilize some form of child care of household help.

Respondents' Perceptions of Self

1. The majority of women in this study perceive themselves as having the so-called "masculine" characteristics generally ascribed to the managerial role. They see themselves as persuasive, competitive, aggressive, competent and confident persons.

2. It would appear that perceiving themselves as having the required management characteristics does not preclude the majority of respondents from feeling feminine. Generally, very few respondents feel they must forego femininity in order to advance on the job. One could assume from this and earlier conclusions about the respondents' acceptance by others in their organizations that the women in this study do not perceive their careers to be affected by their display of both feminine and "masculine" characteristics. Henning and Jardim (1977) have noted that the successful women executives in their study felt they had to forego their femininity on the job in order to increase their chances of being accepted generally by their male colleagues as well as their opportunities for advancement.

Evidently, the women in this study did not feel this was necessary.

3. To the women in this study, being successful as women means being good wives and mothers as well as being good administrators. Success in one area achieved at the price of neglecting another area is not a satisfactory situation for these women.

4. In spite of the role conflicts they experience between their roles as wives and career women, the majority of respondents report that their careers enhance their roles at home as wives. They also say that they are happier because of their careers. It would appear, then, that their careers are important to them.

5. Of the respondents who have children, the largest number of respondents are in the middle of the Likert scale in terms of their response to the statement, "I experience the demands of role conflict between mother and career woman." Since the highest number of children are in the older age categories (6 years to 12 years; 13 years to 18 years; over 18 years), it would be assumed that they represent less anxiety and energy drain for the career woman than do younger children. Thus, role conflicts for the career woman who is also a mother are minimized.

6. As the number of hierarchical reporting positions between the respondents and their presidents increases, the respondents' feelings of success as mothers also increase. This suggests that the lower a woman's hierarchical position in a college (and hence the less demanding her job responsibilities), the more successful she feels as a mother because she can devote more time to this role.

Perceptions of Factors that Enhance or Inhibit the Employment and Advancement of Women

Job situations peculiar to women.

1. The majority of women in this study feel accepted generally by their male colleagues. They are included, if not always then at least occasionally, at luncheons and other social gatherings. They do not feel they are singled out at these gatherings as women and treated accordingly. They also feel that they have access to office information. At department meetings or in their colleges in general, the majority of respondents feel that their ideas are used at least most of the time. Very few respondents feel resented by their male or female subordinates, co-workers and superiors. Kanter (1977) has suggested that women in management are not accepted, generally, by their male colleagues because they are perceived to be different and perhaps not to be trusted. As a result, they are excluded not only from the informal discussions that take place among colleagues in casual interactions, but also from participating in more formal interactions, such as those that take place during meetings. The findings in this study do not support Kanter's conclusions.

2. The majority of respondents (53.6 percent) do not feel that their maximum capabilities are being utilized in their jobs.

3. Although 46.4 percent of the respondents feel that they are the brunt of sexist comments, not one respondent felt like a token woman. It appears from this and earlier conclusions in this study that the majority of respondents were selected as administrators based

on their potential and abilities rather than to simply "pad" the administrative ranks with women.

Respondents' perceptions of the organization.

1. The majority of women in this study feel that they are receiving fair and equal treatment with their male colleagues particularly in the following areas: (a) special training opportunities, (b) management development opportunities, (c) informal off-the-record development opportunities, (d) encouragement to try for promotions in non-traditional areas, and (e) their treatment in general.

2. The only factor within their respective organizations in which the respondents' careers could be hindered relates to men's feelings about working for a woman. The largest percentage of respondents, 46.3 percent, feel that men in their colleges prefer not to work for a woman.

Correlations between the respondents' perceptions of their organizations and their perceptions of self.

General conclusions. As pointed out in earlier conclusions under "Job Situations Peculiar to Women," and "Respondents Perceptions of the Organization," it is true that the majority of women in this study feel accepted generally by their male colleagues. It is also true that they feel they are receiving fair and equal treatment with their male colleagues from their organizations.

For the majority of women in this study, self perceptions of feelings of femininity, the foregoing of femininity and being sexually available as an asset in getting ahead on the job, were largely

related to the degree of personal growth and advancement opportunities they perceived for themselves within their organizations.

However, in the areas of respondents' self-perceptions relating to the levels of self-esteem, achievement orientation and confidence, it could not be determined with any degree of certainty whether respondents' self-perceptions affected respondents' perceptions of their organizations or whether the opposite was true.

Specific Conclusions

1. The more that equality of training opportunities for men and women increases: (1) the more the respondents feel feminine, (2) the less the respondents feel they must forego their femininity, and (3) the less they feel that being sexually available is an asset in getting ahead on the job.

2. The more that women are not welcome in an organization's management development opportunities: (1) the less the respondents feel feminine, (2) the more they feel they must forego their femininity, and (3) the more they feel that being sexually available is an asset in getting ahead on the job.

3. The more that informal development opportunities are given to men: (1) the less the respondents feel feminine, and (2) the more they feel that being sexually available is an asset in getting ahead on the job.

4. The more that men are not in favor of equal opportunities for women: (1) the more the respondents feel they must forego their femininity, (2) the less feminine they feel, and (3) the more they feel that being sexually available is an asset in getting ahead on the job.

Women Administrators as Obstacles to Their Career Progression in Community Colleges

General conclusions. Henning and Jardim (1977) have pointed out that a woman's advancement can be affected by her lack of career planning. Typically, many women do not plan careers until later in their working lives. Unlike men who build the foundations of their careers in their early twenties, women tend to let their careers "just happen." They may only be starting to take their work seriously, and to formulate concrete goals at the time during their working life that their male counterparts are using to move up the promotion ladder in a carefully planned series of steps. By neglecting to plan the foundations of a career until, perhaps, their thirties, women themselves become obstacles to their career progress.

Since the majority of women administrators in this study did not formulate career plans in educational administration until later, when they were working, they themselves were obstacles to their career progress. However, it would appear based on the findings in this study, that the majority of women in this study no longer are themselves obstacles to their career progress.

1. Very few respondents (4 women) have turned down a promotion in the past five years. The majority of respondents perceive themselves to be achievement oriented. Further, the majority of the married respondents indicated that the possibility of making more money or having a higher position than their husbands would not prevent them from accepting a promotion. This suggests a strong desire for promotion among the respondents generally.

2. Henning and Jardim (1977) have noted that women are often

ignorant of the impact their participation in informal discussions that take place in casual interactions at informal gatherings can have on their career progress. They can learn a large body of professional etiquette or useful pieces of work related information at these types of gatherings. Of the 7 respondents who indicated that they were not included in social gatherings by their male colleagues, more than half said they would like to be.

Implications

Implications for Faculties of Education

It seems significant that the majority of women administrators in this study did not formulate career plans in educational administration until they were working. Further, the majority of women who were promoted to their administrative positions came from a variety of teaching areas within instructional ranks in their organizations. The largest number of undergraduate degrees held by these women were in education.

Based on the above findings, it would seem relevant for Faculties of Education who are in the business of training teachers to also address elements of career planning in their curriculum. A number of teachers and instructors move on to hold administrative positions within their organizations. Some discussion about the possible career paths from instructional ranks to administrative ranks might be of benefit to education students particularly at the undergraduate levels.

At graduate levels in departments of educational administration

within Faculties of Education, the inclusion of curriculum components which promote an awareness among male and female students in these departments of the pressures and concerns that women often have to deal with on the job should be considered. By promoting an awareness among prospective male and female administrators in these programs of the effects of sex-role stereotyping, men and women can start thinking about their behavior patterns on the job.

Implications for Women Administrators and Their Male Colleagues

Traditionally women have not made serious career plans until later in life than men normally do. The majority of women in this study did not formulate career plans in educational administration until after they were working. By neglecting to plan their careers earlier, these women acted as obstacles to their own career progression. Women must become more aware of the decisions to be made about careers if they are to increase their personal growth and advancement opportunities. By understanding cultural norms and values, they can make a more informed career choice. The women who make it to the top can help subordinates up the promotion ladder. Their male colleagues can help by being more aware of their behavior patterns in interacting with female colleagues, subordinates and superiors. They can be more open to acting as sponsors to women, helping them as they have traditionally helped male protégés up the promotion ladder.

Implications for Educational Organizations

There was some question in this study as to whether the women administrators' self-perceptions were largely related to the degree of advancement opportunities they perceived for themselves within their organizations or whether their self-perceptions affected their perceptions of opportunities within their organizations. Although conclusions based on the findings in this study relating to this area are uncertain, Kanter's (1977) findings tend to support the assumption that self-perceptions are largely proportionate to an individual's perceptions of the degree of personal growth and advancement opportunities available to them within their organizations. Thus it is important that leaders in educational organizations ensure that access to such opportunities within their organizations is equal for both males and females.

Suggestions for Further Study

1. This study dealt specifically with women in administrative positions in six Alberta community colleges. A comparison study dealing with men in administrative positions would seem appropriate and relevant. It could be instructive to gather the same background information on these men, ascertain their perceptions of themselves, their jobs and their organizations. Do their behavioral approaches to their jobs differ significantly from those of women as revealed in this study?

2. Because many women in this study were promoted from instructional ranks to their administrative positions, a comparison

study dealing specifically with women instructors might be appropriate. Again through this research, it might be learned just what gaps appear in background, job competencies, and self-perceptions between instructors and administrators.

3. As this study dealt specifically with women administrators in Alberta Community Colleges, a comparison study dealing with women administrators in Community Colleges in other provinces would seem appropriate and relevant. Do women administrators in Alberta Community Colleges differ significantly from their counterparts in other provinces across Canada?

4. Given the inability to establish with any degree of certainty whether self-perceptions of women administrators in this study are largely proportionate to the degree of personal growth and advancement opportunities they perceive within their organizations or whether the opposite is true, further study in this area using an instrument capable of assessing the situation in question would seem appropriate and relevant.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

Pilot Study

Women in Administrative Positions Questionnaire

Instructions

Please read the attached respondent instructions and questionnaire carefully.

Do you feel that other people will have problems with any questions? If yes, please indicate on a separate sheet of paper which questions might be unclear or ambiguous and note any suggestions you might have for improving them.

Do you feel that other people might be unwilling to answer any of the items or answer them truthfully? If yes, please list item numbers involved.

Please complete the attached questionnaire as if you were presently employed in a community college as an administrator. Use fictitious information for answers to items requesting salary information, years with the college, etc. For items requesting information on marital status or items asking you to respond depending on your marital status answer in terms of your real marital status. One of the purposes of the pilot study is to time the number of minutes it takes you to complete the questionnaire. This will give me an idea of how long it will take the subjects selected for this study to complete the questionnaire.

Any general comments you may have on the questionnaire in terms of format, spelling errors, clarity of questions, suggestions for improvement would be appreciated.

WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL BACKGROUND:

1. What is your job title at this time? _____

2. In terms of hierarchical reporting positions, how many positions exist within your organization between your position and the President's? _____

3. Approximately, how many people work in your college? _____

4. How many years have you been with this college? Under 1 ____ over 1 to 5 ____ over 5 to 10 ____ over 10 to 15 ____ over 15 ____

5. Were you hired for your current position? yes ____ no ____
   If no, were you promoted to this position? yes ____ no ____
   If promoted, what was your job title when hired? _____
   If promoted, how many jobs did you have with this college before you were promoted to this one? _____
   If promoted, did you take special training to obtain this job? yes___ no___
   If yes, where? _____ What? _____

6. Within the past five years, to your knowledge, have you lost a promotion to a man when you were equally qualified? yes ____ no ____

7. Have you ever turned down a promotion? yes ____ no ____
   If yes, check all the following reasons that apply:
   family responsibilities ____ husband's opinion ____ conflict with husband's job ____ feeling of inadequacy ____ other ____

8. What is your present income? $5-9,999 ____ $10-14,999 ____ $15-19,999 ____ $20-29,999 ____ $30-39,999 ____ $40,000 or more ____

9. Do you think your salary is comparable to a man's salary for the same job in your college? yes ____ no ____

10. Within the past five years, to your knowledge have you held a job where a man doing the same type of work was paid more than you were? yes ____ no ____

11. Check all educational levels that apply to you:

less than high school graduate	____	
high school graduate	____	
business school	____	major emphasis _____
vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
some college	____	
some university	____	
college graduate	____	major field _____
university graduate	____	major field _____
		degree held _____
Master's degree	____	what field _____
Doctorate	____	what field _____

12. Circle the appropriate category that corresponds with your age. Under 20 20 to 25 26 to 31 32 to 37 38 to 43 44 to 49 50 to 59 56 to 61 over 61

13. When did your plans to become an educational administrator begin?
in high school ____ in college ____ in university ____ in graduate school ____ while working ____ other _____
(specify)

14. What was your father's principal occupation while you were growing up?
unskilled ____ skilled ____ professional without managerial responsibilities ____ professional with managerial responsibilities ____

15. Check all levels that apply to your father's educational attainment:

less than high school graduate	____	
high school graduate	____	
business school	____	major emphasis _____
vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
some college	____	
some university	____	
college graduate	____	major field _____
university graduate	____	major field _____
		degree held _____
Master's degree	____	what field _____
Doctorate	____	what field _____

16. Was your mother employed while you were growing up? yes ____ no ____
If yes, what was her principal occupation during these years? unskilled ____ skilled ____ professional without managerial responsibilities ____ professional with managerial responsibilities ____

17. Check all levels that apply to your mother's education attainment:

less than high school graduate	____	
high school graduate	____	
business school	____	major emphasis _____
vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
some college	____	
some university	____	
college graduate	____	major field _____
university graduate	____	major field _____
		degree held _____
Master's degree	____	what field _____
Doctorate	____	what field _____

18. Who most influenced your career choice? father ____ mother ____ instructor ____ other _____
(specify)

19. How many brothers and sisters do you have? _____
How many are older? _____
How many are younger? _____

20. What is your marital status? never married ____ married ____ separated ____ divorced ____ widowed ____

If never married, go on to question 21.
If married or previously married, what is (was) your husband's job title?
_____

20. (a) What is (was) his income? $5-9,999 ____ $10-14,999 ____ $15-19,999 ____
$20-29,999 ____ $30-39,999 ____ $40,000 or above ____

(b) Check all levels that apply to his educational attainment:

less than high school graduate	____	
high school graduate	____	
business school	____	major emphasis _____
vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
some college	____	
some university	____	
college graduate	____	major field _____
university graduate	____	what field _____
Master's degree	____	what field _____
Doctorate	____	what field _____

(c) On a number scale, how would you rate his feelings about your career?
Circle one proud 5 4 3 2 1 resents

(d) Which of the following job-related items is (was) or could be a problem in your marriage?

	(is/was a)	
If you made more money than your husband did	problem ____	could be ____
If you advanced to a higher position than his	problem ____	could be ____
If he was asked to transfer	problem ____	could be ____
If you were offered a better job in another city	problem ____	could be ____
Other _____ (specify)	problem ____	could be ____

None of the above is (was) or could be a problem in my marriage _____

(e) In what ways is (was) he an asset to your career? Check all that apply.

through moral support/encouragement	____
help with the children	____
help with household tasks	____
expertise and/or knowledge in your field	____
other _____ (specify)	

21. How many children do you have in these age groups? 0-5 years ____ 6-12 ____
13-18 ____ over 18 ____ not applicable ____

22. What type of help do you have for your children and housekeeping?
day baby sitter ____ day care center or nursery school for children ____
full-time housekeeper (live-in) ____ full-time housekeeper (live-out) ____
cleaning woman (occasionally) ____ none of the above ____

JOB SITUATIONS PECULIAR TO WOMEN:

1. Do you travel on your job? yes ____ no ____
Have you ever, to your knowledge, been passed up for a promotion because it meant travelling alone? yes ____ no ____
Because it meant travelling with men? yes ____ no ____

2. Do you feel included in luncheon gatherings with your male colleagues?
yes ____ no ____ yes, sometimes ____
If yes, are you usually treated as "one of the college's administrators" or are you singled out as a woman at the gathering and treated accordingly? usually treated as one of the administrators ____
usually singled out as a woman and treated accordingly ____
Is it uncomfortable if you offer to pay the cheque? yes ____ no ____

3. Do you feel you are included in other social gatherings of your male colleagues? yes ____ no ____ sometimes ____
If no, would you like to be included? yes ____ no ____ sometimes ____

4. Do you feel you have as much access to "office information" as the men in your office? yes ____ no ____

5. Do you feel that your ideas are utilized in meetings/conferences? never ____ occasionally ____ most of the time ____ always ____
In your college in general? never ____ occasionally ____ most of the time ____ always ____

6. Do you feel your maximum capabilities are being utilized in your job?
yes ____ no ____ no, and I would like to do more than I am now doing ____
no, but I'm satisfied with what I am now doing ____

7. Do you feel that being a woman has an adverse effect on your relationship with people you deal with outside your college, i.e. people on your administrative level, below and above? yes ____ no ____ sometimes ____

8. Do you feel you are the "token" woman in your department? yes ____ no ____

9. Do you feel resented by

male subordinates	yes ____	no ____	somewhat ____
female subordinates	yes ____	no ____	somewhat ____
male co-workers	yes ____	no ____	somewhat ____
female co-workers	yes ____	no ____	somewhat ____
male superiors	yes ____	no ____	somewhat ____
female superiors	yes ____	no ____	somewhat ____

If no to any of the above is it because
you have no male subordinate ____
you have no female subordinate ____
you have no male co-workers ____
you have no female co-workers ____
you have no male superiors ____
you have no female superiors ____
or is it for other reasons yes ____ no ____

10. Do you feel you are the brunt of sexist comments? usually ____ seldom ____ sometimes ____ never ____

SELF PERCEPTIONS:

Rate the degree of your agreement to each of the following statements from 5, high agreement, to 1, low agreement. For example, if you highly agree with the statement, CIRCLE number 5. If you do not agree, CIRCLE 1. Your feelings between 5, high agreement, and 1, low agreement, would be rated 4, 3, or 2.

I FEEL THAT ON MY JOB:

	high				low
1. I am a persuasive person	5	4	3	2	1
2. I have low motivation	5	4	3	2	1
3. I am competent	5	4	3	2	1
4. I am an agressive person	5	4	3	2	1
5. I do not like a great deal of pressure	5	4	3	2	1
6. I am an emotional person	5	4	3	2	1
7. I can work without acceptance	5	4	3	2	1
8. I find a high source of self-esteem within myself	5	4	3	2	1
9. I am successful	5	4	3	2	1
10. I do not feel confident of my abilities	5	4	3	2	1
11. I have a good sense of humor	5	4	3	2	1
12. I do not exhibit my feminine qualities	5	4	3	2	1
13. I want to stay right where I am in this college. I do not want a promotion.	5	4	3	2	1

Circle the appropriate number

ON MY JOB:

14. I am not a competitive person	5	4	3	2	1
15. Being single is an asset	5	4	3	2	1
16. I am not really achievement oriented	5	4	3	2	1

IN GENERAL:

1. I am a dependent person	5	4	3	2	1
2. I am a feminine person	5	4	3	2	1
3. I feel I must forego my feminity to advance in my job	5	4	3	2	1
4. I feel I do not have a good background for my job	5	4	3	2	1
5. I feel resentment from my non-working female friends	5	4	3	2	1
6. Most of my close friends are career women	5	4	3	2	1
7. As a child, I was considered a "tomboy"	5	4	3	2	1
8. As a child, I closely identified with the role of my mother	5	4	3	2	1
9. As a child, I closely identified with the role of my father	5	4	3	2	1
10. I feel that being sexually available is an asset for a woman to get ahead	5	4	3	2	1
11. My parents were more interested in my marrying than my having a career	5	4	3	2	1

If never married, go to question 10 below.
If married, begin with question 1 below.
If previously married, but not now married, answer for the time that you were married if pursuing a career at that time.

	Degrees of agreement (high → low)					
1. I feel I am a successful wife	5	4	3	2	1	
2. My husband's career comes first	5	4	3	2	1	
3. I would not accept a promotion if I then made more money than my husband did	5	4	3	2	1	
4. I would not accept a promotion if I then had a higher position than my husband did	5	4	3	2	1	
5. I experience the demands of role conflict between wife and career woman	5	4	3	2	1	
6. My career enhances my role at home as a wife	5	4	3	2	1	
7. I feel I am successful if I am a good wife and do a so-so job at work	5	4	3	2	1	
8. I feel I am successful if I do a good job at work and do a so-so job as wife	5	4	3	2	1	
9. I feel I am a successful mother	5	4	3	2	1	
10. I would accept a position if it meant moving	5	4	3	2	1	NA
11. I experience the demands of role conflict between mother and career woman	5	4	3	2	1	
12. My career enhances my role at home as a mother	5	4	3	2	1	NA
13. I am happier because of my career	5	4	3	2	1	NA
14. I feel I am successful if I am a good mother and do a so-so job at work	5	4	3	2	1	
15. I feel I am successful if I do a good job at work and do a so-so job as mother	5	4	3	2	1	NA

PERCEPTIONS OF THE ORGANIZATION:

Read each item carefully and then decide how you feel about it. Rate the degree of your agreement to each of the following statements from 5, high agreement, to 1, low agreement. For example, if you highly agree with the statement, CIRCLE number 5. If you do not agree, CIRCLE 1. Your feelings between 5, high agreement and 1, low agreement, would be rated 4, 3 or 2.

	high				low
1. This college is just as willing to give special training opportunities to women as to men	5	4	3	2	1
2. Women are not genuinely welcome in this organization's management development opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
3. Informal, off-the-record development opportunities are usually given to men here	5	4	3	2	1
4. Women here are encouraged to pursue careers, try for promotion, and apply for what have been traditionally "male" jobs	5	4	3	2	1

	Degrees of agreement				
	high				low
5. Most top male administrators here would be leary of having a female protegée	5	4	3	2	1
6. Most males here would not want to work for a woman	5	4	3	2	1
7. Most of the men here would view women who wanted to get ahead as pushy	5	4	3	2	1
8. Most men here are not genuinely in favor of equal opportunities for women	5	4	3	2	1
9. Most women here would prefer working for a man	5	4	3	2	1
10. This college is a leader in providing opportunities for women	5	4	3	2	1
11. Women are treated in a condescending way by men here	5	4	3	2	1
12. I am satisfied in general with the way I am treated here	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX B

LETTERS OF TRANSMITTAL

Department of Educational Administration
The University of Alberta

Letter of Transmittal to Presidents

November 3, 1978

Dear _____:

I am a graduate student presently working in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. In partial fulfillment of the requirements of the M.Ed. degree, I am conducting a study on women administrators in Alberta Community Colleges. This study is under the supervision of Dr. C. Bumbarger.

In association with their rapidly changing roles in Canadian society, a growing number of women are entering careers that, until now, have not held many women. A number of women are now engaged in educational administration in post-secondary, non-university institutions such as Community Colleges. However, not much is known about these women in terms of their educational attainment levels, their general background, or their perceptions of their jobs and organizations.

The objectives of the study I am conducting are:

1. To identify the general profile of women administrators in Alberta Community Colleges.
2. To determine how these women perceive themselves, their jobs and their organizations.

In order to conduct this study, I need your assistance to locate women presently in administrative positions. Specifically, I would very much appreciate it if you could provide me with the following information:

1. The names of the women in your College who are classified as administrators
2. The working titles of these women
3. The names of the department in which they work.

After receiving this information, I hope to be able to arrange an itinerary so that I can meet with each of the women who agree to participate in the study, answer any questions they might have, and pick up the questionnaires. This will ensure more complete results and, hopefully, a more carefully answered questionnaire. The exact details of the itinerary can be worked out on an individual basis through correspondence with the women administrators in your College.

The results of this study will be based on the questionnaire responses from all the institutions involved and will not be specific to any one college. I would be pleased to send you a copy of this final study which I hope that you would circulate to the women who participated in it.

I look forward to hearing from you and to further contact with your College.

Yours sincerely

Elaine Robillard

Elaine Robillard Telephones: Office 432-3094
Home 433-8066

November 20, 1978

Dear

I am a graduate student presently working in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. I am conducting a study entitled "Women Administrators in Alberta Community Colleges." This study is under the supervision of Dr. C. S. Bumbarger.

Associated with their rapidly changing roles in Canadian society, a growing number of women are entering career fields that, until now, have not held many women. A number of women are now engaged in careers in educational administration in institutions such as Community Colleges. However, not much is known about these women in terms of their general backgrounds or their perceptions of their jobs and organizations. I, myself, was a Community College administrator in the Ontario system before enrolling in the Master's program and am very interested in expanding the sphere of knowledge about women in such positions. As an educational administrator, you have already gained expertise and experience through your administrative position and, as a woman, are in a unique position to contribute to this study.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify the general profile of women administrators in Alberta Community Colleges.
2. To determine how these women perceive themselves, their jobs and their organizations.

Should you decide to participate in this study, and I hope you will, you would be asked to complete a questionnaire which will be mailed to you and picked up by myself at a later mutually pre-arranged time and date. This will enable me to meet you and answer any questions you may have about the questionnaire or the purpose of the study.

The results of a pilot study I conducted with this questionnaire showed that the average time required to complete it was 20 minutes. Since the number of women constituting the population of women administrators in the Alberta Community Colleges selected for this study is fairly small, your participation in this study is very important to its success.

In order to obtain the names of women administrators at your College, I contacted your President. At that time I offered to send him a copy of the final study and suggested that it be circulated to you and other participants from your College. The final results will be based on findings from all the institutions involved and will not be specific to any one College or individual.

For your convenience in indicating whether you wish to participate in this study, enclosed is a stamped self-addressed envelope. Also enclosed is a short form which I ask you to return to me as soon as possible. Should you agree to participate in this study, a questionnaire will be mailed to you. I will then contact you by telephone to arrange a mutually convenient time and date for our meeting and to pick up your completed questionnaire.

I look forward to meeting you in the near future.

Yours sincerely

Elaine Robillard

C. S. Bumbarger

Name _____

Institution _____

Check one of the following:

Yes, I would like to participate in this study ☐

No, I would not like to participate in this study ☐

Elaine Robillard Telephones: Office 432-3094
Home 433-8066

November 30, 1978

Dear

Thank you for your interest in participating in the study entitled "Women Administrators in Alberta Community Colleges." I am conducting this study under the supervision of Dr. C. S. Bumbarger in partial fulfillment of the Master's of Educational Administration degree at the University of Alberta.

Associated with their rapidly changing roles in Canadian society, a growing number of women are entering career areas that, until now, have not held many women. A number of women are now engaged in careers in educational administration in institutions such as Community Colleges. However, not much is known about these women in terms of their general backgrounds or their perceptions of their jobs and organizations. I, myself, was a Community College administrator in the Ontario system before enrolling in the Master's program and am very interested in expanding the sphere of knowledge about women in such positions. As an educational administrator, you have already gained expertise and experience through your administrative position, and as a woman, are in a unique position to contribute to this study.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify the general profile of women administrators in Alberta Community Colleges.
2. To determine how these women perceive themselves, their jobs and their organizations.

As a participant in this study you are asked to please complete the attached questionnaire. The results of a pilot study I conducted with this questionnaire showed that the average time required to complete it was 20 minutes. The final results of this study will be based on findings from all the institutions involved and will not be specific to any one College or individual.

I will be contacting you shortly to arrange a mutually convenient time and date for us to meet and to pick up your questionnaire. I look forward to meeting you in the near future.

Yours sincerely

Elaine Robillard

Dear Participant:

Enclosed is the questionnaire which you agreed to complete as part of the study entitled "Women Administrators in Alberta Community Colleges." I will be contacting you shortly to arrange a mutually convenient time to meet you and answer any further questions you may have about the study. At the time of our meeting I will pick up your completed questionnaire.

Thank you for your participation in this study. I look forward to meeting you in the near future.

Yours sincerely

Elaine Robillard
Department of Educational Administration
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

APPENDIX C

WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

The purposes of this questionnaire are:

1. To obtain information on how women administrators feel about their jobs and their organization.

2. To construct a general profile of women in educational administration positions today.

In answering each item, please indicate your own frank and honest opinion. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Some of the items may not be worded exactly the way you would like them; however, answer the best way you can.

Please fill in the information requested below. This page will be separated from the questionnaire upon receipt and destroyed to insure anonymity. The information is required only to permit identification for follow-up of non-respondents.

Name: _____

Institution: _____

WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL BACKGROUND:

1. What is your job title at this time? _____

2. Is this classified as a full-time or part-time position?
   1. Full-time ____ 2. Part-time ____

3. In terms of hierarchical reporting positions, how many positions exist within your organization between your position and the President's? _____

4. How many years have you been with this college?
   1. Under 1 ____ 3. Over 5 to 10 ____ 5. Over 15 ____
   2. Over 1 to 5 ____ 4. Over 10 to 15 ____

5. Were you hired for your current position? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____
   1. If no, were you promoted to this position? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____
   2. If promoted, what was your job title when hired? _____
   3. If promoted, how many jobs did you have with this college before you were promoted to this one? _____
   4. If promoted, did you take special training to obtain this job?
      1. yes ____ 2. no ____
   5. If yes, where? _____ What? _____

6. Within the past five years, to your knowledge, have you lost a promotion to a man when you were equally qualified? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

7. Have you ever turned down a promotion? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____
   If yes, check all the following reasons that apply:
   family responsibilities ____ husband's opinion ____ conflict with husband's job ____ feeling of inadequacy ____ other ____

8. What is your present income? 1. $5-9,999 ____ 2. $10-14,999 ____
   3. $15-19,999 ____ 4. $20-29,999 ____ 5. $30-39,999 ____
   6. $40,000 or more ____

9. Do you think your salary is comparable to a man's salary for the same job in your college? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

10. Within the past five years, to your knowledge have you held a job where a man doing the same type of work was paid more than you were? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

11. Check all educational levels that apply to you:

01. less than high school graduate	____	
02. high school graduate	____	
03. business school	____	major emphasis _____
04. vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
05. some college	____	
06. some university	____	
07. college graduate	____	
08. university graduate	____	major field _____
		degree held _____
09. Master's degree	____	what field _____
10. Doctorate	____	what field _____
11. other	____	please specify _____

12. Circle the appropriate category that corresponds with your age.
1. Under 20 2. 20 to 25 3. 26 to 31 4. 32 to 37 5. 38 to 43
6. 44 to 49 7. 50 to 55 8. 56 to 61 9. over 61

13. When did your plans to become an educational administrator begin?
1. in high school ____ 2. in college ____ 3. in university ____
4. in graduate school ____ 5. while working ____
6. other _____
(specify)

14. What was your father's principal occupation while you were growing up?
1. unskilled ____ 2. skilled ____ 3. professional without managerial responsibilities ____
4. professional with managerial responsibilities ____
5. not applicable ____

If No. 14 is not applicable, go on to question 16.

15. Check all levels that apply to your father's educational attainment:

01. less than high school graduate	____	
02. high school graduate	____	
03. business school	____	major emphasis _____
04. vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
05. some college	____	
06. some university	____	
07. college graduate	____	major field _____
08. university graduate	____	major field _____
		degree held _____
09. Master's degree	____	what field _____
10. Doctorate	____	what field _____
11. other	____	please specify _____

16. Was your mother employed while you were growing up? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____
If yes, what was her principal occupation during these years?
1. unskilled ____ 3. professional without managerial responsibilities ____
2. skilled ____ 4. professional with managerial responsibilities ____

17. Check all levels that apply to your mother's education attainment:

01. less than high school graduate	____	
02. high school graduate	____	
03. business school	____	major emphasis _____
04. vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
05. some college	____	
06. some university	____	
07. college graduate	____	major field _____
08. university graduate	____	major field _____
		degree held _____
09. Master's degree	____	what field _____
10. Doctorate	____	what field _____
11. other	____	please specify _____

18. Who most influenced your career choice? 1. father ____ 2. mother ____
3. both parents ____ 4. instructor ____ 5. other _____
(specify)

19. How many brothers and sisters do you have? _____
    How many are older? _____
    How many are younger? _____

20. What is your marital status? 1. never married ____ 2. married ____
    3. separated ____ 4. divorced ____ 5. widowed ____

    If never married, go on to question 21.

    (a) If married or previously married, what is (was) your husband's job title?
    _____

    (b) What is (was) his income? 1. $5-9,999 ____ 2. $10-14,999 ____
    3. $15-19,999 ____ 4. $20-29,999 ____ 5. $30-39,999 ____
    6. $40,000 or above ____

    (c) Check all levels that apply to his educational attainment:

01. less than high school graduate	____	
02. high school graduate	____	
03. business school	____	major emphasis _____
04. vocational school	____	major emphasis _____
05. some college	____	
06. some university	____	
07. college graduate	____	major field _____
08. university graduate	____	what field _____
		degree held _____
09. Master's degree	____	what field _____
10. Doctorate	____	what field _____
11. other	____	please specify _____

    (d) On a number scale, how would you rate his feelings about your career?
    Circle one proud 5 4 3 2 1 resents does not apply ____

    (e) Which of the following job-related items is (was) or could be a problem in your marriage?

	(is/was a)	
1. If you made more money than your husband did	1. problem ____	2. could be ____
2. If you advanced to a higher position than his	1. problem ____	2. could be ____
3. If he was asked to transfer	1. problem ____	2. could be ____
4. If you were offered a better job in another city	1. problem ____	2. could be ____
5. other _____ (specify)	1. problem ____	2. could be ____

    (f) None of the above is (was) or could be a problem in my marriage ____

    (g) In what ways is (was) he an asset to your career? Check all that apply.

through moral support/encouragement	____
help with the children	____
help with household tasks	____
expertise and/or knowledge in your field	____
other _____ (specify)	____

21. How many children do you have in these age groups? 1. 0-5 years ____
2. 6-12 years ____ 3. 13-18 ____ 4. over 18 ____ 5. not applicable ____

22. What type of help do you have for your children and housekeeping?
1. day baby sitter ____ 2. day care center or nursery school for children ____
3. full-time housekeeper (live-in) ____ 4. full-time housekeeper (live-out) ____
5. cleaning woman (occasionally) ____ 6. none of the above ____

JOB SITUATIONS PECULIAR TO WOMEN:

1. Do you travel on your job? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____
   1. Have you ever, to your knowledge, been passed up for a promotion because it meant travelling alone? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____
   2. Because it meant travelling with men? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

2. Do you feel included in luncheon gatherings with your male colleagues?
   1. yes ____ 2. no ____ 3. yes, sometimes ____
      1. If yes, are you usually treated as "one of the college's administrators" or are you singled out as a woman at the gathering and treated accordingly? usually treated as one of the administrators 1. ____
         usually singled out as a woman and treated accordingly 2. ____
      2. Is it uncomfortable if you offer to pay the cheque? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

3. Do you feel you are included in other social gatherings of your male colleagues?
   1. yes ____ 2. no ____ 3. sometimes ____
   If no, would you like to be included? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____ 3. sometimes

4. Do you feel you have as much access to "office information" as the men in your office? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

5. Do you feel that your ideas are utilized in meetings/conferences?
   1. never ____ 2. occasionally ____ 3. most of the time ____ 4. always ____
   In your college in general?
   1. never ____ 2. occasionally ____ 3. most of the time ____ 4. always ____

6. Do you feel your maximum capabilities are being utilized in your job?
   1. yes ____ 2. no ____ 3. no, and I would like to do more than I am now doing ____ 4. no, but I'm satisfied with what I am now doing ____

7. Do you feel that being a woman has an adverse effect on your relationship with people you deal with outside your college, i.e. people on your administrative level, below and above? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____ 3. sometimes ____

8. Do you feel you are the "token" woman in your department? 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

9. Do you feel resented by

1.	male subordinates	1.	yes ____	2.	no ____	3.	somewhat ____
2.	female subordinates	1.	yes ____	2.	no ____	3.	somewhat ____
3.	male co-workers	1.	yes ____	2.	no ____	3.	somewhat ____
4.	female co-workers	1.	yes ____	2.	no ____	3.	somewhat ____
5.	male superiors	1.	yes ____	2.	no ____	3.	somewhat ____
6.	female superiors	1.	yes ____	2.	no ____	3.	somewhat ____

If no to any of the above is it because
1. you have no male subordinates ____
2. you have no female subordinates ____
3. you have no male co-workers ____
4. you have no female co-workers ____
5. you have no male superiors ____
6. you have no female superiors ____
7. or is it for other reasons 1. yes ____ 2. no ____

10. Do you feel you are the brunt of sexist comments?
1. usually ____ 2. seldom ____ 3. sometimes ____ 4. never ____

SELF PERCEPTIONS:

Rate the degree of your agreement to each of the following statements from 5, high agreement, to 1, low agreement. For example, if you highly agree with the statement, CIRCLE number 5. If you do not agree, CIRCLE 1. Your feelings between 5, high agreement, and 1, low agreement, would be rated 4, 3, or 2.

I FEEL THAT ON MY JOB:

		high				low
1.	I am a persuasive person	5	4	3	2	1
2.	I have low motivation	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I am competent	5	4	3	2	1
4.	I am an aggressive person	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I do not like a great deal of pressure	5	4	3	2	1
6.	I am an emotional person	5	4	3	2	1
7.	I find a high source of self-esteem within myself	5	4	3	2	1
8.	I am successful	5	4	3	2	1
9.	I do not feel confident of my abilities	5	4	3	2	1
10.	I have a good sense of humor	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I want to stay right where I am in this college. I do not want a promotion	5	4	3	2	1

Circle the appropriate number

ON MY JOB:

14.	I am not a competitive person	5	4	3	2	1
15.	Being single is an asset	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I am not really achievement oriented	5	4	3	2	1

IN GENERAL:

1.	I am a dependent person	5	4	3	2	1
2.	I am a feminine person	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I feel I must forego my femininity to advance in my job	5	4	3	2	1
4.	I feel I do not have a good background for my job	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I feel resentment from my non-working female friends	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Most of my close friends are career women	5	4	3	2	1
7.	As a child, I was considered a "tomboy"	5	4	3	2	1

	high				low
8. As a child, I closely identified with the role of my mother	5	4	3	2	1
9. As a child, I closely identified with the role of my father	5	4	3	2	1
10. I feel that being sexually available is an asset for a woman to get ahead	5	4	3	2	1
11. My parents were more interested in my marrying than my having a career	5	4	3	2	1

If never married, go to question 9 below.
If married, begin with question 1 below.
If previously married, but not now married, answer for the time that you were married if pursuing a career at that time, otherwise go to question 9.

	Degrees of agreement					
	high				low	
1. I feel I am a successful wife	5	4	3	2	1	
2. My husband's career comes first	5	4	3	2	1	
3. I would not accept a promotion if I then made more money than my husband did	5	4	3	2	1	
4. I would not accept a promotion if I then had a higher position than my husband did	5	4	3	2	1	
5. I experience the demands of role conflict between wife and career woman	5	4	3	2	1	
6. My career enhances my role at home as a wife	5	4	3	2	1	
7. I feel I am successful if I am a good wife and do a so-so job at work	5	4	3	2	1	
8. I feel I am successful if I do a good job at work and do a so-so job as wife	5	4	3	2	1	
9. I feel I am a successful mother	5	4	3	2	1	NA
10. I would accept a position if it meant moving	5	4	3	2	1	
11. I experience the demands of role conflict between mother and career woman	5	4	3	2	1	NA
12. My career enhances my role at home as a mother	5	4	3	2	1	NA
13. I am happier because of my career	5	4	3	2	1	
14. I feel I am successful if I am a good mother and do a so-so job at work	5	4	3	2	1	NA
15. I feel I am successful if I do a good job at work and do a so-so job as mother	5	4	3	2	1	NA

PERCEPTIONS OF THE ORGANIZATION:

Read each item carefully and then decide how you feel about it. Rate the degree of your agreement to each of the following statements from 5, high agreement, to 1, low agreement. For example, if you highly agree with the statement, CIRCLE number 5. If you do not agree, CIRCLE 1. Your feelings between 5, high agreement and 1, low agreement, would be rated 4, 3 or 2.

		Degrees of agreement				
		high				low
1.	This college is just as willing to give special training opportunities to women as to men	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Women are not genuinely welcome in this organization's management development opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Informal, off-the-record development opportunities are usually given to men here	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Women here are encouraged to pursue careers, try for promotion, and apply for what have been traditionally "male" jobs	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Most top male administrators here would be leary of having a female protegée	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Most males here would not want to work for a woman	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Most of the men here would view women who wanted to get ahead as pushy	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Most men here are not genuinely in favor of equal opportunities for women	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Most women here would prefer working for a man . . .	5	4	3	2	1
10.	This college is a leader in providing opportunities for women	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Women are treated in a condescending way by men here	5	4	3	2	1
12.	I am satisfied in general with the way I am treated here	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX D

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table 1

Specialized Areas of Respondents while in Business School and Vocational School

Response Category	Frequency (N = 10)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Business School		
Secretarial Science	3	30
General Secretary	1	10
Unspecified	2	20
Vocational School		
Modelling	1	10
Library Science	1	10
Personnel and Industrial Relations	1	10
Nursing	1	10

Table 2

Bachelor's, Master's and Doctorate Degree Majors of Fathers and Mothers

	Degree Type Frequency									
	Frequency of Bachelor's				Frequency of Master's				Frequency of Doctorate			
	Father (N=35)		Mother (N=41)		Father (N=35)		Mother (N=41)		Father (N=35)		Mother (N=41)	
Major	No.	Relative (%)	No.	Relative (%)	No.	Relative (%)	No.	Relative (%)	No.	Relative (%)	No.	Relative (%)
Sociology	1	2.9										
Education	1	2.9										
Psychology			1	2.4								
Social Work			1	2.4	1	2.9	1	2.4				
Electrical Engineering	1	2.9										
Commerce/ Marketing			1	2.4								
Medicine									1	2.9		
Dentistry									1	2.9		
Unspecified Major	2	5.7										

Table 3

Number of Respondents who Travel on the Job

Response Category	Frequency (N = 40)	
	Absolute	Relative (%)
Travel on the job	25	62.5
Do not travel on the job	15	37.5